

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 13, 1899.

The Week.

We have now heard at last from the President's Philippine Commissioners, with their recommendation how he is to solve the problem. They have issued another proclamation inviting Aguinaldo to treat, and offering him attractive terms if he is willing to give up his dream of independence. That he is sincere in this desire for independence we have every reason to believe. He has given the only proof of sincerity that any people has ever given—readiness to fight for it against enormous odds, and to maintain the fighting in spite of continuous defeat. It is to be observed, too, that he has been fighting in the teeth of another proclamation which promised him numerous benefits in case he would submit and be quiet. All would-be conquerors do as we are doing. They all promise good treatment in return for obedience. George III. promised it to the Americans repeatedly by proclamation, but they refused to believe him, although they were already his subjects, spoke his language, and professed his religion. The Austrians promised it also frequently to the Italians, in terms which by no means led the Italians to believe they would whip Italian ladies in public—which they did. The Russians also promised good things to the Poles if they laid down their arms. In fact, it is the normal accompaniment of conquering enterprises. It is therefore natural for Aguinaldo, who is said to be a man of some education, not to be won over by the promises of proclamations which avoid all mention of independence. It would be so even if no fighting had taken place, or, in other words, if there had been no invasion of the Philippine soil against the will of the de-facto government. But fighting has taken place. Some thousands of Filipinos have been slain defending what they believe to be the right. We have sent against them all the troops we have, and a powerful navy. On the 8th of February, Gen. Otis telegraphed that "Aguinaldo now applies for a cessation of hostilities and conference; have declined to answer." The fighting has gone on ever since, with burning, looting, slaughter, and all the usual accompaniments of "chaos." His capital has been captured after it had been burned. It was not much of a capital, but if it was fine of the Russians to burn theirs in spite of a very good proclamation, we cannot help admiring his burning his, such as it was, in spite of our President's proclamation.

A Spanish General, who has seen

much service in the Philippines, made the prediction some time ago that the Americans would win every battle in the island of Luzon, and yet lose the campaign. This prophecy it is clearly within the power of the insurgents to fulfil, if they choose to. Fighting and running away day after day, they can count upon the nature of the country and the nature of the climate to do the rest. It is evident that the War Department grossly underestimated the difficulty of the military problem in the Philippines, to say nothing of the even more difficult civil problems remaining. We speak of all this only to ask again why the Government does not exhaust every effort to come to some peaceable arrangement with the natives without further fighting. Enough killing has been done to convince the natives of our superior power. Chasing them all over Luzon for two years would not make them any more sure of this or any more ready to treat. With his Philippine Commission on the spot as his chosen instrument of negotiation, and in an impregnable military position, the President should not lose a day or omit an offer or appeal in securing a truce and a settlement in a peaceful way. His Postmaster-General said at Chicago on Monday that Mr. McKinley was dutifully and anxiously waiting for the American people to tell him what to do with the Philippines. Well, they are telling him by every reputable and recognized organ of public opinion to stop the aggressive fighting in those islands. Will he do it?

Whatever comes of the proclamation by the Philippine Commission, its issue has accomplished one melancholy result. It has seriously damaged the reputation of the President of an American university. Only a little over six months ago, President Schurman of Cornell declared that "this republic, whose soul is self-government, does not want Asiatic dependencies or the military despotism they would entail," and added:

"We are not called upon to rectify the tyrannies of Africa or Asia. Nor are we under any obligation to Aguinaldo and the insurgents. Let us keep to our own hemisphere, seeking only naval stations in the Old World."

Last week he signed his name to a flamboyant proclamation, insisting that the United States must have an Asiatic dependency, and will kill all the Filipinos who resent our supremacy; sustaining the military despotism under which our soldiers "let no insurgent live," and "burn hundreds of houses and loot hundreds more"; and adding insult to injury by promising all sorts of blessings to the Filipinos in the future at the hands of the Algerized Administration, which, at this very moment, is slaughtering and

robbing them. It is a deplorable thing to see an instructor of the young thus turning his back alike on his own principles and on the teachings of history.

One of the speakers at the Boston meeting last week to protest against the war of conquest in the Philippines was Mr. H. C. Parsons, a Republican member of the State Senate. Among other things which he said was this:

"We American people are some day to pass on this question. The first right of the American people is to know the truth, the whole truth, as it passes from day to day, and what this country is doing in the distant Philippine Islands."

The reference here is to the fact that the United States Government maintains a censorship of news at Manila, and that the military authorities permit no intelligence to be sent from the Philippines—or even to the islands—which does not meet their approval. The cable company has warned all persons that no dispatch will be transmitted having the least relation to politics without the assent of the military authorities of the United States. A gentleman of high standing in Hong Kong undertook to send to the Philippine Islands an abstract of the remarks made by Mr. Hoar in the United States Senate on the 9th of January, and its transmission was refused. Only a short time ago Reuter's, the European news agency, was forced to send a news letter by steamer from Manila to be placed on the wire at Hong Kong, because its tone was too pessimistic to suit the American authorities. Every careful reader must have observed the sharp contrast between the dispatches which the censor allows to leave Manila, and the private letters which get into print in this country.

Thus, step by step, does the United States follow the example of Spain. Our Government goes forth to conquer in the alleged interest of civilization, it "thrashes the natives" in order to "send the Christ there," and it conceals the methods which it pursues—in each respect imitating what we have always denounced as the outrageous system of Spain. But, after all, nobody can wonder at the establishment of this censorship. The Administration sends a commission to the Philippines which issues a proclamation that "guarantees an honest and efficient civil service." It would never do to let the natives know that the President who authorized this action appointed a worthless politician as Secretary of War, and retains him after the exposure of his gross unfitness, and that the Congressmen who are expected to pass a law establishing the merit system in the Philippines, have just refused to apply that system in the taking of the

census at home. But the Government thus far has failed to apply the censorship to letters from Manila, and in this way we tardily learn such truths as have been told by the correspondent of the New York *Sun*, who reported that "the orders were to let no insurgent live"; the Californian in charge of the Red Cross work, who set forth "the determination of our soldiers to kill every native in sight," and the way in which the bodies of slaughtered natives "were stacked up for breastworks"; and the private from the State of Washington, who wrote home that all the "boys" have come to be of the opinion that "the only good Filipino is a dead one," that "we burned hundreds of houses and looted hundreds more," and that "we have horses and carriages and bull-carts galore, and enough furniture and other plunder to load a steamer." Nor have our authorities yet stopped the publication of pictures, like the graphic collection in the last issue of *Harper's Weekly*, which tell the shocking story far more eloquently than can any words.

An ugly obstacle in the way of Cuban pacification and upbuilding has been removed by the voluntary dissolution of the so-called Cuban Assembly. What broke it down, and showed that it was not really a sovereign Legislature, was the fact that it had not the "power of the purse." It could not levy taxes or negotiate a loan or float a bond. Now an Assembly which can do none of these things becomes ridiculous, even to the Cuban mind, after a time, and when, in addition, its further obstinacy stood in the way of the distribution of \$3,000,000 among Cuban soldiers, who had never before received as many pesetas as pay, the moment for the Assembly to disappear had evidently come. Its withdrawal from the scene will most of all make for peace, because it implies the speedy disbandment and disarming of the Cuban army. The existence of large bodies of armed men in cities and camps, who had been for three years leading a roving and pillaging life, was a standing threat to peace and order. The only wonders is that collisions between them and our troops have not occurred before this. Now they will give up their weapons and show whether they are sincere in their professed intention of settling down and going to work. More of our own volunteers, moreover, will be released, and can be sent home in time to avoid the perils of the rainy season in Cuba. All told, the situation is much cleared up by the dissolution of the Cuban Assembly and the prospect that the Cuban army will be speedily paid off and disbanded.

Full details of the Samoan row reached the public on Friday, and they certainly show a lamentable state of affairs. Here were the representatives of three

great nations, charged with the duty of caring for the feeble folk of the islands, and the first thing they did was to fall to quarrelling among themselves. A measure of technical right was on the side of the German Consul. Under the Berlin Treaty, the action of the three foreign consuls must be unanimous in order to be binding. So Herr Rose appeared to be within his legal rights in asserting that a proclamation of the other two consuls, without his assent, was null and void. But it was a most reckless thing for him to come out with a counter-proclamation, which he must have known would be a firebrand among the natives and lead to the fighting and slaughter which did indeed promptly follow. A prudent, sensible Consul would at least have waited for instructions from his home Government. On the other side, Admiral Kautz and the English were no doubt acting under instructions. Both at Washington and at London, it had been decided that the previous defiance by the German Consul of the decision of the Chief Justice against Mataafa had put him out of court, and that whatever the English and American representatives should agree upon was to be done. But while the two sides were wrangling over these nice points of law and treaty interpretation, the natives had to be shelled and slaughtered. It will be strange if these savages hereafter value as highly as they should the benevolent tutelage of three great Powers. But for the name of it, Mataafa and Malietoa might as well have been left to cut each other's throats without assistance.

The rotten-beef trail was brought into the immediate vicinity of Alger and Eagan on Thursday by some very important evidence. William A. De Cindry, Chief Clerk of the Commissary-General for twenty years, testified that he had, at the instance of Gen. Eagan, sent out forty or fifty telegrams to dealers in beef, asking for bids to supply refrigerated beef. Gen. Eagan himself supplying the form of the telegram. He had also been instructed to prepare a draft of a contract for beef supply. When he submitted it a controversy at once arose between him and Capt. Davis, Assistant Commissary-General, as to the length of time which the beef should be guaranteed to keep. Capt. Davis favored twenty-four hours, saying the understanding was that refrigerators were to be built on the shore in the rear of the moving troops. This was the only explanation he could obtain for the change from seventy-two to twenty-four hours in the contract. In one of the revisions of the contract, Eagan himself put in this clause in his own handwriting, referring to the time: "Which shall not be more than seventy-two hours from the time of storing the same in such refrigerators." The Chief Clerk said he did not

understand this clause at the time, but he had no authority to strike it out. He said also that Eagan himself was "dubious" about the twenty-four-hour limit. He seemed to have been something more than dubious, for, according to the Chief Clerk, all memoranda relating to the matter, which the Chief Clerk carefully preserved, have disappeared from the files of the Department.

When an official thinks it necessary to destroy documentary evidence of his doings, it is a pretty sure sign that he has been engaged in operations that will not bear the light. Memoranda on the time clause of the contracts were not the only things that the Chief Clerk said had disappeared from the files of the Commissary Department. The bulk of a letter from one of the contractors, relating to the Powell process of preserving beef, had also been returned to them at their request. The reason for such return was revealed a moment later when Major Lee, counsel for Gen. Miles, presented the full letter in evidence. It described the preserving, or embalming, process fully, claiming complete success for it in tests made at Tampa, and declaring the contractors' belief that "such results have never before been accomplished in the history of the fresh-meat business." After this, it will be needless to make any further denials as to the use of chemicals. The contractors themselves claimed "exclusive control of the Powell process for preserving fresh meats." They did not say they kept it sweet by means of ice, but by means of a "preserving process." How the process worked with our troops, everybody knows.

The election in Chicago Tuesday week was a great victory for the independent voter. The city would undoubtedly go Republican again by a large majority, as it did in 1896, on the national issues between that party and Bryanism; yet it has reelected a Democratic Mayor by about 42,000 plurality, despite the diversion of about 46,000 Democratic votes to ex-Gov. Altgeld. The Mayor owes his success to the support of hosts of Republicans who admired the fight he has made against the ring that tried to grab valuable street-car franchises, and who were disgusted with the Republican machine which named that party's candidate for Mayor. One ward, which has been a "Republican stronghold," and which went Republican by over 1,000 plurality on the Town Treasurer issue, was carried on the same day by Harrison; and equally remarkable exhibitions of independence were made all over the city.

The Municipal Association of Cleveland, which led the successful movement of the city's independent voters for the overthrow of Boss McKisson and his

machine in last week's election for Mayor, has issued an admirable statement regarding the moral of this result and its lesson for the future. "Never before in the history of the city," says this address, "was the question of machine politics and government by 'pulls' so squarely put before the people, and the seal of condemnation has been set upon machine politics and all its attendant evils." The best thing in this statement is the announcement that the Association has no idea of considering its recent victory as a final triumph of its principles; that "it is not merely a temporary affair," and that "no notion could be more mistaken than that it has sprung into existence for the promotion of the welfare of any political faction or the furtherance of any private interest." To prove this, it points out that Farley, the Democrat who has just been elected Mayor, is pledged to carry out certain reforms, and declares that "this Association intends, in so far as its power may go, to insist that these promises be kept; and should the Farley administration fall into any of the evils of its predecessor, the Municipal Association will attack it with the same vigor it has attacked the administration of Mayor McKisson." The rise of such organizations of public-spirited men in our great cities is one of the most hopeful signs of the times.

Gov. Roosevelt's message to the Legislature on the subject of the canal-frauds investigation is likely to result in the granting of the special appropriation which he desires. In the communication from Messrs. Fox and MacFarlane, which he sends with the message, the real cause of the backwardness of the legislators about granting the appropriation is revealed. They hope by delaying the inquiry to have the statute of limitation put an end to all chance of bringing canal rascals to justice. Aldridge and his beneficiaries all along the line of the canals have great influence with the Legislature, since both political parties have had their fingers in the pie; and if they can stop the inquiry at its present point, there will be nothing to fear from it henceforward. But the Governor will not let it be stopped. He will raise the necessary funds by a call for popular subscription, if necessary, and the legislators know this. A refusal to grant the appropriation would be effective only upon their own reputations, consequently, and that to their detriment.

The first day's session of the Mazet Investigating Commission removed all doubt about the thoroughness of this inquiry so long as Mr. Moss is in charge of it. Whether it was intended to be thorough by its originators or not, it cannot be made otherwise since the start which he gave it on Saturday, un-

less his services be dispensed with, which is not a possibility. He headed it directly at the source of all our municipal evils when he made Croker the centre of his attack. It was an extraordinary achievement to score at the very beginning, yet this is what Mr. Moss did. We have all known from the outset of the Croker régime that it was based on blackmail, but we have never had the proof laid before us so clearly as it was on Saturday. It was established by witnesses on both sides that the Building Department is under the control of Croker, through a nephew, and that builders can get such favors as they may desire by retaining the nephew as "counsel" at fees ranging from \$5,000 to \$10,000. The testimony on this point was compact and conclusive. One witness, a contractor, testified that previous to January of the present year it was impossible to get the Building Department to approve of what is known as the Roebling system of fire-proof construction. In one case, in which the Roebling bid was \$25,000 below other bids, the veto of the Department made it impossible to accept it. The manager of the Roebling Company testified that the company was reorganized in January last, and a son of Croker was taken in as a stockholder. After that, contracts for work on school buildings which had the Roebling system of construction in them, passed the Building Department without trouble. Curiously enough, the Department put out a new set of requirements for fireproofing systems in the construction of school buildings which were a verbatim copy of the pamphlet descriptions of the Roebling system, and consequently made it impossible to have any other system used. This wonderful transformation in the Department's attitude was completed by the simple process of retaining Croker's nephew, McCann, to appear before the Building Code Commission, and make an "argument" in support of the change, in return for a fee of \$5,000.

After this achievement with Croker, Mr. Moss put the Chief of Police on the stand, and in a very short time exposed his system of administration almost as thoroughly as he had Croker's. He got him to admit that every day, after midnight, he takes his stand on a street corner in front of a liquor-store, and in a neighborhood bristling with dens of vice, and remains there for an hour or more, "smoking and getting the fresh air." While standing there he never notices that the liquor-saloon behind him is violating the law by selling after hours; never notices that dens of vice of various forms are flaunting their business in his face; and does not know that some of them are kept by men who went on his bond when he was on trial as a police captain, a few years ago, on a charge of taking bribes. His ignorance

on these points is equalled by that on all others, as Mr. Moss showed. In fact, according to his own statements, we have for a Chief of Police a man who is an absolute ignoramus so far as the duties of his position are concerned, and a man who is so dull in moral sense as to make admissions which are absolutely destructive to his own reputation as either a capable official or an honest man.

The Irish elections to the county councils, under the new local-government act passed by the Conservatives, have resulted in sweeping victories for the Nationalist party. In other words, what the Tories used to get black in the face denouncing Gladstone for proposing to do, they have themselves gone a great way towards doing. They have turned over Irish local government to the Irish people. Ex-dynamiters for mayors, and the fiercest of separatist agitators in control of the county councils—this is the result, not of legislation attempted by Mr. Gladstone, but of laws enacted by Lord Salisbury. Yet the Conservatives and the nation seem to be taking the thing quietly. It is a fresh illustration of the old political truth that it takes a conservative party to put through radical legislation. Parnell was long if not always of the opinion that genuine and far-reaching home rule for Ireland could be had only of the Tories. They could pass a home-rule bill, and the country would regard it as a mild and wise and healing measure. For a really less radical bill, Gladstone would be damned up and down the land.

A very disagreeable impression has been caused in England by the admission of the Government, made in the House of Commons, that a state of slavery exists in Uganda under an English protectorate. It was in evidence that escaped slaves had been returned to their masters by English authority, very much after our old Fugitive Slave Law style. What was the Government's explanation of this extraordinary state of things under the British flag? Well, it was that by the decree of 1890, under which England took over the government of Zanzibar, it was expressly stipulated that the subjects of the Sultan "shall remain as they are at present, and their status shall be unchanged." As many of the said subjects are in the status of slavery, what can be clearer than that the British Government is bound, by its solemn agreement, to keep them slaves? But the same agreement provided that England might abolish slavery by compensation to slave-owners, so that the Government's hands are not really tied as it pretends. The whole thing leaves a bad taste in the mouths of English philanthropists. But what are humane traditions to do except give way when Imperialism commands it?

THE CZAR'S CONGRESS.

Our Commissioners, named on Thursday by the President, to go to the Peace Congress at The Hague, which will be convened on May 18, will, on the whole, worthily represent the United States. It might hastily be objected to Capt. Mahan that his way of disarming is to knock the weapons out of the hands of his antagonists, while keeping his own powder particularly dry and his finger on the trigger. But this would be to do this distinguished military expert a wrong. If his writings have fed, as we believe they have fed, the passion for war, it has been because they have been wrested from their author's intention. He has consistently argued for more powerful armaments only as a defensive measure. We doubt if a plea, or an excuse, for an aggressive navy can fairly be found in all his books. Capt. Mahan is, therefore, peculiarly a Commissioner to be impressed by the main proposal which is to be made to the Congress in the Czar's name. This is for an agreement among the Powers not to increase their military expenses for a fixed term of years. As the great argument for increase, both in this country and in England, has always been that the army and navy of one country must be kept up to the level aimed at by other countries, it is clear that the Czar's plan is one which must appeal to Capt. Mahan above all men.

It is equally clear that the United States will cut no great figure directly in the deliberations of the Congress. Our army and our navy are comparatively insignificant. No matter what the Congress does, there is no likelihood that our national legislature will ever vote the money for a great standing army. It was only by main strength and desperate appeals that the Administration was able to get the troops imperatively needed in the Philippines and in Cuba. Congress has been less grudging in money for the navy, yet, even with the shadow of war still upon us, the last naval bill was most disappointing to naval experts, and it is still doubtful if the new ships apparently authorized can be built at all on the narrow terms exacted by Congress. It will be, therefore, the easiest thing in the world for our Commissioners to agree to make no increase in our military budget. As the case stands, we have troops and ships enough for the needs of the country in time of peace; and even if the Government wanted more money for national armament, it is certain that it could not get Congress to vote it in time of peace.

Yet, indirectly, the influence of the United States in the Czar's Congress will be great, and we regret to say that we cannot think it will be on the side of peace. This results not from what we say, but from what we do. Five years ago the United States could have gone to a World's Peace Congress and exerted

an enormous moral power. We were then the one great example of a nation whose main preoccupations and aims were peaceful. If the question had then been raised, "How can a country be great or strong without mighty armaments and crushing taxation for military purposes?" our proud answer might have been, "Look at us and see." But we have changed all that. If not in our own thought and purpose, yet in the impression we now make upon the rest of the world, we are no longer what we were, but have taken our place among the heavily armed nations.

That our new attitude distinctly makes for international suspicion, and for drawing the sword instead of sheathing it, is curiously shown in a little pamphlet which has just been published in this city. It is in Spanish, is written by a South American to South Americans, and is substantially a loud call upon the countries to the south of us to be warned in time, and to arm themselves against the aggressive rapacity of the United States. This is the lesson which the author, Señor Zumeta, draws from our war for humanity. He sees in it a threat against the independence of the South American nations. Bolivar's prophecy he thinks on the point of being fulfilled, that the time would come when there would be a general assault of brute strength upon liberty. Señor Zumeta tells his countrymen that the United States is "voracious," and his cry is, "Let us arm!" to defend lands and liberties. This is largely fanciful, no doubt, yet it does serve to show the impression we make on others; that we have provoked doubt and jealousy where once we enjoyed sympathy and admiration, and that we are going to a Peace Congress violently under suspicion of having our tongues in our cheeks.

It is unfortunately true, also, that the Czar, or the Russian Government, will come, to the Peace Congress under a cloud. The recent trampling upon the rights and liberties of Finland was most ill-judged, in its effect upon public opinion, on the eve of the Congress at The Hague. It seems to give color to the assertion that the Czar has really little to do with his own Government; that he is allowed to express generous aspirations to the top of his bent, but that the great bureaucrats do the actual work. It is certain, in any case, that a painful impression has been made in England, and even in France, by the rough way in which the rights of the Finns have been ridden over. There seems to have been a clear violation of the compact under which Finland became a part of Russia in 1809; while the brutal disregard of the protests and appeals of the inhabitants has been complete. It will set many people to wondering whether, in the words of the Paris *Temps*, the author of the disarmament proposals wished to give, in the eyes of Europe, the lie to

his liberal language and his humane designs.

Still, the mere calling of a Peace Congress is a great event, and its deliberations cannot but result in good. Luckily, the programme is not too ambitious. It proposes, in brief, to discuss the possibility of arresting excessive armament, of making war more humane when it is unavoidable, and of lending fresh sanctions to arbitration as a means of averting war. For the attainment of all these high aims our Commissioners may confidently be expected to bend all their efforts. They would be false to their country, as well as to their own characters, if they did not. In particular may we look to see them eagerly embrace every plan tending to exalt peaceful arbitration. If this necessarily draws us into better relations with England, our Commissioners are not the men to shrink on that score. Capt. Mahan cannot refuse to accept the fulfilment of his own prophecy. "When we begin really to look abroad," he wrote, in 1890; "when we begin to busy ourselves with our duties to the world at large, and not before, we shall stretch out our hands to Great Britain, realizing that in unity of heart among the English-speaking races lies the best hope of humanity in the doubtful days ahead." There, at least, we have a man ready for an English alliance, not for reasons of gush or sentiment, but on grounds of solid good to the world.

"Dare to love England? And to say so? Yes.
Though the Celt rage, and every half-breed
scowl,
Though Hun and Finn and Russ and Polack
howl
Their malediction, coddled by a Press
Alert at cursing, indolent to bless."

THE WALL STREET INCIDENT.

The violent tumble of speculative values with which Wall Street was entertained last week, is interesting chiefly as proof that a halt will be called somewhere to crazy speculation; that if the speculators will not stop of their own choice (and they usually will not), they will be brought to at least a temporary standstill by outside agencies. For the wild commotion on the Stock Exchange, during the last month or two, the blame is commonly laid at the door of the so-called "industrial" incorporations. This is true to the extent that the spirit of reckless speculation has perhaps concentrated more on this class of stocks than on others. But the fact is that, in the peculiar position of the public mind at the opening of the year, it was merely a question of finding something which the promoter could foist upon the public at inflated values. It is not at all improbable that if circumstances had not made feasible the "industrial" enterprises as an absorbent of the public's speculative capital, we should have witnessed a wild movement in mining shares, or in colonial "exploration and development" companies. When the

public is in a mood to speculate, and has accumulated the money for the purpose, the promoter is not very far behindhand in discovering means for meeting the demand. That the existing craze is by no means distinctively a result of the industrial incorporations, is pretty conclusively proved by the fact that the wildest of all the recent movements on the Stock Exchange were not in shares of the industrial combinations, but in the stock of the city traction enterprises.

The problem, however, which presents itself under such circumstances to the conservative classes of the community is not necessarily affected by the particular character of the speculative enterprises. The reason why so great account has been taken of the "industrial" speculation lies in two facts—the enormous magnitude of the supply of new stock issues of the kind brought upon the market, and the absolute impossibility of learning exactly what is the financial situation of any given enterprise. As to the volume of such incorporations, take the *Financial Chronicle's* summary of the amount of "industrial" shares and bonds authorized since the 1st of January. The summary for the first two months of 1899 showed authorized capital of \$1,106,300,000 for something like forty-two separate enterprises. Moreover, a month ago, comment was very general, even in the circles of promoters themselves, to the effect that "everything of value had been already capitalized," and that the movement would thenceforth fall to small proportions. The first of these assertions may or may not have been true; the second certainly was not; for the new summary shows a further increase in such authorized capitalization, during the month of March, of \$480,000,000. The total since the opening of 1899 reaches the handsome figure of \$1,586,325,000.

Such a deluge of new speculative securities, on all of which, sooner or later, loans will be asked from the city banks, would constitute a sufficiently perplexing problem, even if the intrinsic value of the new undertakings were known through frequent and official statements. But when, to the enormous volume of such incorporations, is added the fact that not one of them submits a statement which an intelligent business man would accept as a basis for an individual purchase in his own line of business, the extraordinary character of the situation is at once apparent. We have taken the trouble to examine a number of the "prospectuses" put out by these new concerns—the "prospectus" being, in the great majority of cases, the first and last official statement to the public of the company's financial situation. Without exception, the documents which we have examined assure the subscriber or speculator that the companies combined into the larger concern made so many thousands or millions of dollars last year,

that they hope to make more in the years to come, and that if they do, they will be able to pay such-and-such dividends to their shareholders. It would be difficult to conceive of any more absurd basis of appeal for the capital of prudent investors; yet we are assured by bank officers that, in the case of some of these securities now most active in Wall Street, the most patient inquiry has failed to obtain anything more in the line of trustworthy information.

This, it appears to us, is an almost entirely novel situation for a speculative movement on such a scale as has been threatened. The "Kaffir craze" of 1895 in London had at least the monthly returns of output from the mines, on which investors might rationally base their judgment. Even in the earliest and most reckless days of railway-building the returns of passengers and traffic were more or less frequently submitted. From the "industrials" not only has the investor no information of true value to reckon on to-day, but he may rest perfectly confident that he will get no such information in the future. The most strenuous efforts of State law officers during several years have failed to extort from the Sugar Refining Company, the type of these recent combinations, anything more than the vaguest and most ambiguous summary even of assets and liabilities.

Whoever carefully considers the facts above set forth will hardly express surprise that the banks have been discriminating, as Wall Street expresses it, against the industrials. If any sort of collateral on loans ever required discrimination, it certainly is this, whose quantity is unlimited, and whose intrinsic value is absolutely unknown. The public, too, had plunged headlong into the wildest and most reckless speculation in these issues; market prices for some of them had risen 50 to 60 per cent. within two months; and the great bulk of the buying was known to be undertaken blindly, and purely for the purpose of selling again at some vastly higher level. It appears to us that if our bank officers, under such conditions, had not taken the stand which most of them have done, and refused to extend their loans on any such security, they would simply have proved themselves unworthy of the responsibility imposed upon them.

CHARACTER AND ASSOCIATION.

It has been our steadfast contention for many years that any man who consents to associate himself politically with Tammany Hall, thereby places himself under suspicion as to his character. That organization is in no sense a legitimate political body. It does not aim in any way to secure good government, but to secure support at the public expense for its followers. Nobody has ever heard of a Tammany meeting at which

the principles of real government, or any question of public policy, were discussed. Its sole and persistent objects are "places" for its men, jobs for its leaders, blackmail and plunder as the means of personal wealth for its boss and his favored intimates. Everybody knows this to be the simple truth about the concern. It deals in nominations, appointments, and everything connected with the public business on a commercial basis. It has government for sale to the highest bidder, and its daily existence is at the cost of the fundamental principles of popular, constitutional government.

This being the case, how is it possible for an honest man to associate with it and maintain his character? As a matter of fact, it is extremely difficult to cite an instance in which any presumptively honest man has been able to escape this loss. Many have been able to retain an appearance of preserved integrity for a time, but ultimately something has happened to show that either the character had been lost before the association was formed, or that it had been sacrificed later under the necessities of the case. Tammany has a use for ostensibly honest and respectable men, in order to give an appearance of decency to it on election days, but it has no use whatever for them in office. They must do the boss's will, or out they must go. It is a safe calculation, therefore, that any man whom Tammany puts into office is prepared to sacrifice both the public interests and his own character whenever the boss desires him to use his office for the benefit of the organization. He may make all possible excuses for his conduct, and emit furious outcries against plain speech and just criticism of it, but the fact will remain that he has yielded to his environment, and has lowered his character to the level of his associates.

A few weeks ago Tammany succeeded in getting control of the Board of Education in this city, and it at once elected Mr. Little to the Presidency. One of the first acts of the Board subsequently was the payment of \$7,000 rental for precisely the same building for which the Board, under the anti-Tammany control of the previous year, had paid \$5,000. Mr. Little, who professed to be a man of very high character, and who resented furiously assertions to the effect that he had always done Tammany's bidding as a member of the Board, made no opposition to this inexcusable waste of \$2,000 of public money. There were Tammany owners of the building who were to profit by the job, and that was sufficient reason for it. A short time later, Prof. Nicholas Murray Butler published in the *Educational Review* some remarks about Mr. Little, in which he spoke of him as a "fine old educational mastodon." Mr. Little was so jealous of his character that he went at once to the District Attorney, who allowed him to go before the

grand jury with his complaint, and the grand jury, for reasons which it is beyond the power of human intelligence to conceive, had Prof. Butler and Mr. Henry Holt, the publisher of the *Review*, indicted for criminal libel. Mr. Little's object in this proceeding was to establish the integrity of his character, and thus to show that an honest man could associate with Tammany and hold office at its hands.

Alas, how vain are human calculations! Instead of establishing his character, Mr. Little invited its injury, for he prompted an investigation of his record, with the result that a decision of the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court was discovered and published in which he was declared to have been guilty of "fraudulent" acts in his capacity as the receiver of a bankrupt business concern. The court charged him with "exercising his ingenuity to deceive the creditors and the court as to the true character of the assets, and, by a series of sharp practices, getting the funds, which belonged to the creditors, into his own hands and into the hands of his accessory in the fraud." That is much more unpleasant to have said of you than to be called a "fine old educational mastodon." It will not strike Mr. Croker as constituting a disqualification for high public office, but, in any genuine political organization, it would be so considered. It throws a great deal of light upon Mr. Little's conduct in the choice of his political associates. He is himself a good deal bewildered by this unexpected result of his libel proceeding, and says he "can only account for the decision and the language of the court upon the theory that it has failed to understand the intricacies and complications involved in the case." Mr. Little's sense of humor does not appear to be acute.

One other observation occurs to us, and that is, that most of the persons who are eager to bring libel suits against newspapers and other publications which criticise their conduct in public matters, have something in their records which will not bear the light. It is this which makes them think that something must be done to vindicate their reputations. No man with a mind conscious to itself of rectitude would think an indictment for criminal libel against his accuser necessary to ward off from himself the disgrace of being spoken of as a "fine old educational mastodon." He could safely leave his reputation to withstand the shock of such an assault. It is because there are so many shady and shaky reputations in Tammany Hall that all Tammany men are so alarmed by free criticism and comment upon them, and wish to frighten the press into silence on the subject. Their attitude is comprehensible enough, but that they should be able to induce a grand jury to help them in their purpose is one of the

most astonishing developments of our time.

BETTER DAYS IN CUBA.

Most of the newspaper correspondence from Havana—French and English as well as American—dwells on the contrast between what Cuba now is and what it was at any time during the three years past. By such comparison it is not, of course, difficult to make out an overwhelming case for improvement under American control. Almost any country at peace would contrast pleasingly with the same country when the theatre of war. And in Cuba war was so doubly horrible, was waged with such unspeakable atrocities on both sides, and involved such frightful suffering for non-combatants, that six months' respite on any terms from rapine and massacre could not but seem to have brought paradise after Gehenna.

But there are, we take pleasure in saying, signs that the American régime in Cuba is doing something more than merely to bind up the wounds of war. It is addressing itself to the inveterate evils which partly caused the war. It is going back to those age-long abuses and neglects of the Spanish government of the island which made its condition for years one of smouldering rebellion, and is reforming and correcting with firm and patient hand. Already Cuba has a postal service better than she has ever known, and improvements in this branch of the public service have only begun. Already her cities are cleaner and safer than they have ever been before. Order and honesty have for the first time been established in her custom-houses. Railway and telegraphic communication between the principal cities and towns of the island is restored and will be speedily made better than anything Cubans have known; a Cuban merchant marine is about to be created; and plans for docks and harbors and other public improvements are on the point of being executed. All these things mean a great amelioration of the conditions of life in Cuba; and perhaps more significant and far-reaching than any of them is the latest sweeping reform effected, namely, of the Spanish system of taxation.

Next to Turkish taxation, Spanish taxation is probably the most burdensome and exasperating on earth. Crushing and grievous to be borne in Spain itself, in Cuba the system was keyed up to an extra pitch of oppressiveness and vexation. It was said of our Continental currency that you could not touch it without being taxed in the act. It is certain that you could not touch Cuba, under Spanish rule, without being taxed. Taxes caught you rising up and lying down; hit you in your home and shop and on your farm, travelling or stationary, living or dead. Industry and agriculture and manufactures were strangled

by the coils of taxation twisted about them in every conceivable way. To have or to buy the prime necessities of life meant to be taxed for them. If you carried products out of a city you had to pay a tax to get them through the gates, and if you brought them back again you had to pay to get in. Professions and trades had to be taxed as such. In short, the Spanish tax-gatherer pursued every symbol of wealth, and fined and mulcted its possessor with an ingenuity and a political blindness worthy of Ottoman Turks.

Now this vicious system has been taken in hand by the American military government of Cuba, and a notable beginning of reform made in it. By a decree of March 25, the full text of which has now come to hand, the old jungle of taxation is cleared up in a surprising way. Many of the old taxes are abolished outright; others are reduced from 25 to 50 per cent. We should judge that the net result could not be other than to reduce the total burden of taxation in Cuba one-half. And the work has been done intelligently. Mediæval taxes are cut up by the roots. Article ii. of the decree abolishes the tax of 4¼ cents the kilo on beef-cattle; article iii. forbids the levying of taxes on prime necessities, such as all kinds of food and fuel. Next comes the entire abolition of octroi duties (*alcabala* tax, we believe the Spanish call it)—the taxes, that is, with which municipalities punish anybody who brings merchandise within their jurisdiction. The tax on real estate is revised and reduced, being now fixed at a single tax of 6 to 8 per cent. of the net income, instead of the former 12 to 18 per cent. with no end of surtaxes added in. As for manufactures and trades and professions, the taxes on them are either abolished or greatly reduced.

All told, this beginning of a revision and reform of Cuban taxation is a great achievement, and should go further towards pacifying the island than twenty regiments. Most political evils connect themselves in one way or another with excessive taxation. Cuba was undoubtedly squeezed by the Spanish like an orange. Minute and multiplied taxes strangled her industrial life. If the intolerable pressure is now removed, if industry and thrift are encouraged instead of being repressed, the economic improvement will be vast and cannot fail to lead to moral and political improvement. Taxes cut in half will be a stronger argument than any that prejudice or passion can advance. If the American military government can go on making life in Cuba easier and safer, can strike off the fetters from industry and commerce, it will diffuse a general well-being against which the mutterings and agitations of disappointed and disaffected Cuban politicians will be powerless.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

NEW HAVEN, April 10, 1899.

Once in three years the Oriental Society, in accordance with a not unpleasant restriction imposed by its charter, revisits the scene of its earliest activity and meets in Massachusetts, usually in Boston or Cambridge. But, owing to an intervening session in Andover three years ago, it chanced to be six years to a day since the Society had assembled in Cambridge, where this year the members foregathered on April 6. The spacious hall of the Faculty of Harvard University was kindly put at the disposal of the Society, which mustered above fifty members in attendance. It is not very many years ago, as one of the older members observed, when an attendance of ten was considered a large meeting; a remark that recalls how much the Society owes to the energy and patience of the late Prof. W. D. Whitney, who carried it through all its formative period and really made it what it is to-day. At the annual meeting this year, for example, thirty new members were added to the rolls, which now contain the names of nearly four hundred.

The first session of the Society, President Gilman being the presiding officer, was held on Thursday morning, April 6, when the annual business was transacted, and several of the thirty-four papers offered at this Meeting were read. Prof. Gottheil of Columbia University presented the report of the committee on the cataloguing of Oriental MSS. in this country, a large number having recently been inspected and catalogued by Prof. Hyvernat of the Catholic University of America; two of these forming the subject of a special paper by Dr. Casanowicz of the National Museum in Washington, under the caption, "Two Hebrew Manuscripts." The routine business of the morning was agreeably varied by the suggestion that a telegram of congratulation be sent to Prof. Salisbury of New Haven, for many years an active member and President of the Society, who on this day attained the completion of his eighty-fifth year. This pleasant office was undertaken by his old friend, Col. Higginson. Greetings were sent also to the venerable lexicographer, Otto Boehtlingk, who, though nearly eighty-four, still retains a lively interest in Sanskrit studies, and contributes from time to time essays of his own to the German Oriental journals.

The papers read at this first session were few in number, as the greater part of the morning had been given up to business, but the Society listened, before adjourning, to one of the two technical papers offered by Prof. Barton of Bryn Mawr, who gave some explanatory notes on the forty-fourth and forty-fifth Psalms, and a critical note on one of the contract tablets in Meissner's 'Altbabylonisches Privatrecht.' A paper followed from the other side of the house (for, like most Oriental societies, that of America falls naturally into Aryan and Semitic divisions), by Mr. Gray of Columbia, on Pali and Persian phonology, a scholarly attempt to trace parallel lines of phonetic development in the dialectic variations of these two Aryan branches. After an interesting interpretation of the name Jerusalem by Prof. Haupt of Johns Hopkins, who held that the name meant originally 'Stronghold' or 'City of Safety,' the morning session closed, and the visiting members became the guests of the Cambridge members at a pleasant luncheon in the Colonial Club.

The afternoon session was opened by Prof. Morse of Salem, who spoke on the possibility of communication between the West and East in early times. Prof. Morse's paper was restricted to the question whether the American stringed instrument was pre-Columbian, but, handling the subject on broader lines, he came to the conclusion that there was no communication at all before Columbus. This, belonging to neither side of the house, was one of the general papers which occasionally refresh the Society when the alternative of Sanskrit and Semitic becomes monotonous. A technical paper by Prof. Hopkins of Yale, who followed Prof. Morse, offered some new words to Sanskrit lexicography, and, among other points of grammatical and archaeological interest, pointed out two Sanskrit parallels to the famous "automatic" conflagration of Thucydides, II. 77. Modern observers testify that, in the jungle, fire often is lighted by the friction of bamboos rubbed against each other by the wind; Prof. Hopkins gave extracts from the Hindu epic showing that this fact is recognized in the native literature.

Two other Sanskrit papers were then given, one by Prof. Jackson of Columbia, and one by Prof. Lanman of Harvard. The first of these was a supplementary series of notes on certain dramatic elements in Sanskrit Plays. Prof. Jackson has opened a very attractive field of research in comparing the principles of construction in Sanskrit and in the modern drama of Europe, his special theme in this paper being the observance of the unities by the Hindu dramatist. Prof. Lanman's paper bore the title, "Indian Proverbs which Occur both in Sanskrit and in Pali Books." The subject is one of great literary importance, involving as it does the interrelation of whole branches of Hindu literature, such as the Buddhist Jātakas and the Brahman epic. The illustrations given, though they appealed only to the ear, were striking enough to make the hearer hope that Prof. Lanman would increase his already valuable collection of parallel proverbs.

Considerable discussion was aroused by the next paper, offered by Prof. Lyon of Harvard, on the identification of *alattu* as a variety of stone. Prof. Lyon showed that it was not a precious stone, as has been assumed; but whether the word connoted a special kind of stone or any kind of "striped" stone, which might be used for utensils, remained doubtful. The second session closed with the reading of a technical paper by Prof. Haupt on the vowels of the preformatives of the imperfect in Semitic, and with a very curious parallel, drawn by Prof. Torrey of Andover, between the modern tale of King John and the Abbot of Canterbury and a Coptic original, which Prof. Torrey has found in an unpublished manuscript. In Prof. Torrey's opinion the modern story was brought to Europe via Spain, and he appears to have good reason for his contention that the resemblance between the Oriental and Occidental versions of the tale is too close to be accidental.

The afternoon of Friday being devoted to the papers for the Section on the Historical Study of Religions, an effort was made to have all the remaining essays read on Friday morning. One of the newly elected members, Mr. Montgomery Schuyler of Columbia, gave as his maiden paper an interesting analysis of the part of the buffoon in Sanskrit Plays, and Dr. Christopher Johnston

of Johns Hopkins presented in *absentia* through a fellow-member a new interpretation of the Letter of an Assyrian princess. Prof. Lyon's second paper, giving the record of a Babylonian law-suit, was also read at this session, and Prof. Jastrow of the University of Pennsylvania contributed a discussion in regard to the significance of tearing the garments as a symbol of mourning. Prof. Lyon's record contained much more of general interest than is usually given by Babylonian tablets. Prof. Jastrow's contention was, in brief, that the tearing of garments was not originally a rending, but a stripping or tearing off. On the Sanskrit side, Prof. Hopkins gave the results of an analysis of epic metres in Sanskrit, the epic norm being markedly freer than the classical. Some new inscriptions sent as Indian to Prof. Gottheil were exhibited, and shown by him to be Palmyrene instead of Sanskrit. Prof. Oertel of Yale read by title a communication on the relation of the 'Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa' to the 'Pancaviṅga,' and the session closed with two papers, one by Prof. Torrey, to show that three unpublished letters attributed to the pillared Simeon are not genuine, and one by Prof. T. F. Wright, on Saph and the Tell es-Safi. The Society then adjourned to partake of a luncheon hospitably given to the members by President Eliot.

There remained for the afternoon session the papers intended for the newly created section already referred to. It was found that there were many persons who took an interest in the religious papers and discussions of the Oriental Society without caring for the technical papers. The Section for the Historical Study of Religions receives such quasi-Orientalists, and, on the payment of a small fee, sends them all the papers which properly belong to the Section. These are naturally read at one session, to accommodate the more general audience interested in the study of comparative religion. On Friday afternoon, the Society thus had the pleasure of listening first to Prof. Everett of Harvard on the psychology of the two great Hindu philosophers, Vedānta and Sāṅkhya. Prof. Everett showed that in reality both systems were idealistic, though the latter is popularly reckoned as dualistic. The relation between magic and religion formed the topic of a paper presented at this session by Prof. Toy of Harvard. It was Sir Alfred Lyall who first emphasized the difference between magic and religion, claiming that while the latter takes the gods as helpers, the former is always opposed to the gods and works by coercing them. The difference was somewhat exaggerated at its first presentation, and Prof. Toy very rightly pointed out that to a considerable extent the question is one of terminology. Even in India, witchcraft does not always stand in such sharp antithesis to religion.

The meaning of *gog* in Gog and Magog formed the subject of the next paper. It was presented by Prof. Haupt, who held that *gog* was a gentile term equivalent to *Northern Barbarian*, while *magog* was a repetition of the same word, its prefix meaning no more than *place of* (*the Northern Barbarian*). A somewhat similar paper, lighting up old names with etymological meaning, was given soon after by Prof. Jackson, who, in analyzing the ancient Persian idea of devil, showed that Ahriman is to be interpreted as the 'Spirit of Antagonism,' who is called also by another epithet that

signifies 'full of death'; just as the Buddhist devil Mara is Death.

The Qur'an as seen by an Oriental Christian was discussed by Mr. Arbeely of New York as the next number of the programme, after which Mr. Newell of Cambridge read a short paper on mediæval fairy castles and the isles of the blest. As the afternoon was drawing to a close, Prof. Jastrow thought best to read by title only what promised to be an important paper on the historical study of religions in America, while Prof. Barton and Prof. Hopkins summarized the contents of their final papers on sacrifice among the Wakamba, an African tribe, and the economic of primitive religion, respectively. The Society then adjourned, after a vote of thanks for courtesies received, to meet again in Philadelphia on April 19, 1900.

The "Meeting," as it is called officially, was favored with perfect weather, and the members carried out the unwritten law of keeping the evenings free for social intercourse among themselves. This, to many, with the opportunity thereby afforded for quiet talk and general discussion, is one of the pleasantest features of the annual convention of the Society, though on this occasion it was combined with regret, as it necessitated the refusal of a very kind invitation on the part of Prof. Norton to meet at his house on Friday evening.

WASHBURN HOPKINS.

Correspondence.

STEVENSON AND NEWMAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your recent review of Mr. Lewis E. Gates's 'Three Studies in Literature' the reference to Cardinal Newman's style reminds me of a very interesting comparison that may be made between a passage from Newman's 'Grammar of Assent' and one from Robert Louis Stevenson's 'Ebb Tide.' The citation from 'Ebb Tide' was made in the *Nation* when the book was reviewed, and was very justly put forward as a beautiful example of style. It is as follows:

"... The Virgil, which he could not exchange against a meal, had often consoled him in his hunger. He would study it, seeking favorite passages, and finding new ones only less beautiful because they lacked the consecration and remembrance. Or he would pause on random country walks, sit on the pathside, gazing over the sea on the mountains of Eimeo, and dip into the 'Æneid,' seeking *sortes*. And if the oracle (as is the way of oracles) replied with no very certain or encouraging voice, visions of England, at least, would throng upon the exile's memory—the busy school-room, the green playing-fields, holidays at home, and the perennial roar of London, and the fire-side, and the white head of his father. For it is the destiny of these grave, restrained, and classic writers, with whom we make enforced and often painful acquaintance at school, to pass into the blood and become native in the memory; so that a phrase of Virgil speaks not so much of Mantua or Augustus, but of English places and the student's own irrevocable youth."

This is indeed very beautiful, but who would expect to light on a passage to the same effect, and perhaps even more beautiful, in a volume with so dry a title as Cardinal Newman's 'Grammar of Assent'? He is considering how differently young and old are affected by the words of some classic author such as Homer or Horace:

"Passages which to a boy are but rhetorical

commonplaces, neither better nor worse than a hundred others which any clever writer might supply, which he gets by heart and thinks very fine, and imitates, as he thinks, successfully in his own flowing versification, at length come home to him when long years have passed and he has had experience of life, and pierce him as if he had never before known them, with their sad earnestness and vivid exactness. Then he comes to understand how it is that lines, the birth of some chance morning or evening at an Ionian festival, or among the Sabine hills, have lasted generation after generation for thousands of years, with a power over the mind, and a charm, which the current literature of his own day, with all its obvious advantages, is utterly unable to rival. Perhaps this is the reason of the mediæval opinion about Virgil, as if a prophet or magician; his single words and phrases, his pathetic half-lines, giving utterance, as the voice of Nature herself, to that pain and weariness, yet hope of better things, which is the experience of her children in every time."

J. C. H.

ATLANTA, GA., April 2, 1899.

TWO INDEXES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the very interesting and instructive article on "'Americanism,' or the Catholic Church in America," published in the *Nation* of March 30, the author speaks of the rules governing the Index Expurgatorius. Permit me to state that such an index, and consequently such rules, do not exist. The only index which is sanctioned by the Church officially is the "Index librorum prohibitorum." If a book is prohibited, not on account of its general tendency, but on account of some objectionable passages, it is published in the Index with the remark: *d. c.—donec corrigatur*.

All attempts to publish a catalogue of books which have to be purged from heresies are of private nature, published by governments or universities, but none of them recognized by the Church. The only Index Expurgatorius which was published in Rome appeared in 1607, and was withdrawn by the author, Guanzelli, a master of the sacred palace, as quickly as 1611. The Papal See has never officially recognized this or any other Index Expurgatorius.

In this connection it may be interesting to state that even the present Pope adorns the list of those whom the official Index honors with the mark, *Auctor laudabiliter se subjecit*, although the book was fortunately published without the name of the author.

It might further be new to a number of your readers to learn that the Index is a sort of compromise. The original rules of the Roman Catholic Church, as laid down in a decree of Leo X., dated May 4, 1515, require that every book, before it be printed, be submitted to the proper ecclesiastic authorities. This "censura prævia" was superseded by the Index, because it had become impracticable.

GOTTARD DEUTSCH.

CINCINNATI, O., April 6, 1899.

[Milton observed the distinction when, in 1641, he wrote: "Your Monkish Prohibitions and expurgatorious Indexes." But the shorter designation has become a concept so convenient as to be loosely used even in an historical connection.—ED. NATION.]

A NOVEL ENTERPRISE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There has recently come to my no-

tice the Breck School in Wilder, Minnesota, with an educational aim so novel, to me, and so interesting, that I venture to call the attention of your readers to it. The principal writes:

"All through the West there are hundreds of young men and women whose early advantages were nothing, and who, having reached maturity, come to realize that they need more schooling, but, because of their age and backwardness, cannot enter the graded or even the district schools. To this class of pupils the Breck has its mission. There is no other school in Minnesota that provides especially for this class of pupils. Many are the pupils the Breck has started on the road to a higher education, pupils who had despaired of ever going to school again.

"This winter a man twenty-eight years of age, the owner of a good farm and well to do, came to see if we could take him. He was the oldest of a large family and always helped to support the family, so had never been able to attend school while a boy. He now realizes his want and, through a student of the school, learned that the Breck was for just such as he. I told him that we could take him. 'But,' said he, 'you don't know how ignorant I am.' He was much relieved when he learned that there were others here just as backward as he, and that he would not feel out of place. He is so pleased with the advancement he made in twelve weeks that he expects to rent his farm another year and be in school six months. After he has finished our Agricultural School preparatory course, he will enter the State Agricultural College and complete a course. The rapid progress of this class of pupils—pupils who have ability, maturity, and an incentive—is something remarkable. Were it not for this school, the majority of them would never go to school."

Yours truly,

JAMES M. HUBBARD.

BOSTON, April 8, 1899.

AN EXCEPTION TO THE RULE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to point out an instance in the Old Country of keeping to the right being the "rule of the road"? It may be of interest to some of your readers.

On that section of railway running from London Bridge Station to the town of Greenwich—one of the first, if not the very first suburban line run out of the metropolis, and formerly known as the Greenwich Railway Company—the trains pass each other on the right. When I had occasion, a few years ago, to use this line regularly, it seemed to me amazing that such should be the case, and I never could get any good reason why it was so. The general belief was that, the Greenwich Railway Company having been one of the first lines started, its managers determined to follow the Continental style and expected all other companies would follow suit. Palpably they were in error, and they have kept it up ever since. It is an interesting bit of bigotry or pig-headedness, for when the working of this line was taken over by the London, Chatham and Dover Company or the London, Brighton and South Coast Company (I forget at the moment which), it was stipulated that the "right of way," if one may so call it, was to be adhered to.

I remain, yours faithfully,

AUBURN GLEN.

101 N. FREMONT AVE.,
LOS ANGELES, CAL., April 5, 1899.

Notes.

The late Archibald Lampman's complete works, edited by Duncan Campbell Scott, a brother Canadian poet, and Dr. S. E. Dawson, Queen's Printer, with a biographical sketch,

a portrait, and a facsimile of one of the sonnets, are to be published in Canada by subscription for the benefit of the widow and two young children of Mr. Lampman, who are left in slender circumstances. The price will be \$2.25, and subscriptions may be sent to W. D. Le Sueur.

The second five volumes of the "Beacon Biographies" edited by M. A. DeWolfe Howe and published by Small, Maynard & Co., will be 'Franklin,' by Lindsay Swift; 'Audubon,' by John Burroughs; 'Aaron Burr,' by Henry Childs Merwin; 'J. Fenimore Cooper,' by W. B. Shubrick Clymer; and 'Edwin Booth,' by Charles Townsend Copeland.

'The Heart of Man,' essays by Prof. George E. Woodberry of Columbia, embracing "Democracy" and a "New Defense of Poetry" among other topics; 'The Quest of Faith,' by Thomas Bailey Saunders; and 'The Development of the English Novel,' by Prof. W. L. Cross of Yale, are to be issued this month by Macmillan Co.

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready 'An Epic of the Soul,' a cycle of eighty short poems by an anonymous but not untried or unknown writer; 'Irish Life and Character,' by Michael MacDonagh; and 'The Warden,' a biographical sketch of the late head of St. Stephen's College, Annandale, N. Y., by his son, Henry A. Fairbairn, M.D.

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, who have taken over from George H. Richmond & Son D'Annunzio's works, promise shortly a new volume in the series, viz., 'Fire' ('Il Fuoco'). They will also hereafter be the publishers of Magda Stuart Sindici's works. To be brought out this month is 'Yale, her Campus, Classrooms, and Athletics,' by Walter Camp and Lewis S. Welch, with many half-tone illustrations.

'True Tales of the Insects,' a copiously illustrated large octavo, by L. N. Bade-nock, is soon to be issued by E. P. Dutton & Co.

An edition of Rudyard Kipling's collected letters of travel for the years 1890-1898, together with other matter more or less accurately printed heretofore, is announced by Doubleday & McClure Co.

The Portfolio of National Portraits already announced by R. H. Russell, New York, will consist, it appears, of Japan proofs of Gustav Kruell's eight most remarkable engravings on wood, a rare study in technique in view of the utter absence of mannerism in these great works, viz., Lincoln (two aspects), Grant, Sherman, J. R. Lowell, Garrison, Webster, and Robert E. Lee. The last-named of these (and certainly not the least) is the newest, and has, we believe, not heretofore been put upon the market. The others are known to all connoisseurs, and are now issued collectively at an average price much below the original. The Portfolio will be limited to 250 copies.

Two dainty reprints are the little volume published by Macmillan, bracketing Arnold's "Sweetness and Light" and Pater's "Essay on Style," and 'Washington's Farewell Address,' of which Mr. Worthington C. Ford gives briefly the genesis, and supplies a facsimile of one page of Washington's letter constituting the first draft submitted to Madison in May, 1792 (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.).

Prof. Herford's handsome ten-volume Eversley Edition of Shakspeare (Macmillan) advances with a second volume embracing the "Taming of the Shrew," "Merchant of Venice," "Merry Wives," "Twelfth Night," and

"As You Like It," each with its concise introduction. Of "Taming of the Shrew" the editor remarks that on the German stage its popularity far surpasses that of any other Shaksperian comedy, and is inferior only to that of "Othello."

'Baedeker's United States' established itself instantly in popular favor as a model guide-book to this country. Six years have elapsed since Messrs. Scribner sent us the first edition, and now we have the second, revised. From the new subway in Boston, the erection of Greater New York, the creation of the Public Library, the transfer of Columbia College, the advent of electricity in our tramways, the completion of the Grant monument, to the newest and southernmost Florida watering-place, Miami, the vigilant editorial eye of Mr. Muirhead has noted our developments in this period. Slips and errors have been corrected. The expansionist or "manifest destiny" future is no further discounted than in the first edition, in which Mexico found a place; the only Cuba visible is in New York and in Alabama. For the sake of the tourist, at least, the island will doubtless be both described and mapped in the next edition, along with Porto Rico.

In the second edition of 'The Day-Book of Wonders,' by David Morgan Thomas (London: T. Fisher Unwin), there is a little "reading-matter" for every day in the year, about dwarfs, an African coronation, the Florence burning-glass, Oliver Cromwell, compensation pendulums, the Wesley ghosts, corpse-candles, Wheatstone's "enchanted lyre," gigantic squids, Kepler's choosing of a wife, Layard's Nineveh exhumations, mistletoes, and all that. The author goes to the trouble of telling us whence he compiled his wonders. The list of authorities in eight pages embraces all sorts and conditions of modern books, with a fond leaning towards such as are not over-trustworthy. Whoever enjoys Hone's 'Every-Day Book' will be likely to enjoy this more, because Mr. Thomas has a decided faculty for these holiday manoeuvres of facts. It would amuse anybody's idle quarter of an hour daily through a year. Add to this that it is printed on such thin paper that, though but an inch thick and well under two pounds' weight, it contains some 400,000 words, or as much as three ordinary volumes of to-day. Would it might be imitated in this by those American publishers who make our wrists ache with books of too slender souls incorporated in too ponderous bodies.

In his lifetime, the late R. H. Hutton had published a volume of 'Theological Essays,' and now we have, garnered from his many kindred writings in the *Spectator*, 'Aspects of Religious and Scientific Thought' (Macmillan). The gleanings cover many years, yet everywhere appears the characteristic note of the author when dealing with religious themes—an almost tender tolerance for unbelief, an almost wistful eagerness to make Christianity comprehensive (or vague) enough to embrace all truth, and, too often, a certain strained ingenuity in making a point for his own side. "The Spiritual Fatigue of the World" is a typical subject; every old reader of the *Spectator* would know just how it would be treated.

Lovers of art, and especially of the history of art, and not Bible-readers alone, will be interested in the new venture of the firm of Velhagen & Klasing of Leipzig, who propose

to publish an edition of the Four Gospels, with reproduction of more than 300 paintings made by German, Italian, and Dutch masters in the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, the period of classic masterpieces in religious art, and found in churches, museums, and private collections throughout the civilized world. The illustrations will all have direct reference to the life, doings, and death of Christ, and the collection is intended to be a representative body of the best work of the masters. The first *Lieferung* has appeared and promises well for the whole work, which will be completed within a twelvemonth. An appendix will contain biographies of the artists and the history of the paintings reproduced. The title of the work is simply 'Die Vier Evangelien'; the size is large quarto.

The appearance of volumes i. and ii. of the works of Origen, edited by Paul Koetschau of Jena, draws attention anew to the monumental literary project of the Royal Academy of Sciences in Berlin, in the publication of a complete and thoroughly critical edition, with brief introductions and notes, of the entire Patristic literature, orthodox and non-orthodox, of the Greek Church of the first three centuries, in worthy companionship to the excellent edition of the Latin Fathers for years in course of publication by the Vienna Royal Academy. The series opened something more than a year ago with the first volume of the works of Hippolytus, edited by Profs. Bonwetsch and Achelis. The near future will bring an edition of the works of Eusebius, Julius Africanus, and Clemens Alexandrinus. The prime mover in the project has been the indefatigable Prof. Harnack of the University of Berlin. Quite naturally it is impossible to determine exactly how extensive this series will turn out to be, but the publisher, Hinrichs of Leipzig, reckons upon about fifty volumes in the course of twenty years.

The treatise entitled 'Die Botschaft des Czars,' by the Austrian Field-Marshal-Lieutenant, Freiherr von Sacken (Vienna and Leipzig: Braumüller), is important enough to deserve the attention of those who may have a voice in the coming Peace Conference. The fact that disarmament is not alluded to in the Czar's message is recognized by the writer in the sub-title: "No disarmament, but an ennobling reform of the defensive and military system." Hostile encounters between nations, and hence the maintenance of armies, are considered as unavoidable, but the latter should be limited in size and of the highest imaginable perfection. The present Continental system of universal service should be much restricted, or be replaced by one not involving the continued increase in numerical strength. It is the "people in arms" that causes the powerful warlike impulse among the nations of to-day, and will bring on wars in spite of rulers and Parliaments. The author's forecast of a general European war with the present *Millionen-heere* stuns the imagination. His plans for preventing the cataclysm seem fraught with difficulties, but not positively impracticable.

The aptitude of woman for the pursuit of political and social science has often been questioned, but is plainly maintained in an inaugural address by Prof. Herkner of Zurich, 'Das Frauenstudium der National-ökonomie' (Berlin: Heymann). The writer, supplementing the publications of Prof. L. von Stein on the same subject, shows briefly what has been achieved by women, more

especially in England, in the field of political and social-economy, and then considers the consequences likely to result, for woman herself and for society, from her continued and more general devotion to those subjects.

The April number of the *William and Mary College Quarterly* is wholly taken up with the records of Isle of Wight County, on the right bank of the James River, Va. They go back to 1622, beginning with a list of the massacred by the Indians on Good Friday, March 22, when more than a quarter of the population of Virginia was slain. Musters, deeds, wills, grants, etc., supply much valuable personal, historical, and social information down to 1783.

Longevity, especially if hereditary, is always an interesting topic, and is illustrated in the *New England Magazine* for April, by the Rev. J. W. Chadwick, whose text is the life-work of the Rev. Samuel May of Leicester, Mass., now entering (like his parents before him) on his ninetieth year. Mr. May was on the higher intellectual and social level of his Harvard class of 1829, of which he remains the Secretary and all but the sole survivor. Dr. Holmes, Justice Benjamin R. Curtis, Rev. James Freeman Clarke, Prof. Benjamin Peirce, and the author of "America," were some, but not all, of his eminent classmates. He became a Unitarian clergyman with his home at Leicester, till his engrossment in the anti-slavery cause led him to connect himself officially with the organization of which Mr. Garrison was the leader. As general agent of the Massachusetts Society, he conducted, with admirable competence and fidelity, the propaganda through lectures in the field, rendering a service rivalled only by the abolition press. He has outlived the ill-favor caused among his parishioners and neighbors, by his philanthropic sentiments and connections, and Mr. Chadwick's agreeable sketch will be read nowhere with greater pleasure than in the hill-town which honors Mr. May as its oldest and most public-spirited citizen, and most revered.

A staunch advocate of Mr. Dewey's decimal classification of the knowledgeable, Comm. Desiderio Chilovi, librarian of the National Central Library of Florence, discusses at once acutely and temperately the question of the London Royal Society's proposed catalogue of current scientific literature, in the *Nuova Antologia* for March 1. The scheme is by collaboration in various countries to produce a Poole's Index (in the largest sense) on cards, and ultimately in volume form; and to distribute the cards at the will of the subscriber, according to his specialty—something in the manner of our press-clippings bureaus. Signor Chilovi is sensibly adverse to any printed book catalogue, and equally opposed to the plan of translating titles not embraced in a restricted group of languages into (say) English. He denies the need of selecting a universal language for this purpose or for classification, and points to the perfect adaptability of the Dewey symbolism. In fact, it is actually in use by Mr. Herbert Haviland Field, who, under the auspices of the International Zoological Congress, is issuing at Zurich and distributing at cost price cards in that domain. (The Zurich office is styled *Concilium bibliographicum - opibus complurium nationum Turici institutum*.) Signor Chilovi's article is decidedly worth reading.

The meteorological observatory of Mont Blanc has published, under the direction of

J. Vallot, the third volume of its *Annales*, a continuation of the meteorological observations made simultaneously on the summit of Mont Blanc, in the Grands Mulets, and at Chamonix, together with studies of the variation of the barometer at different altitudes. There are also papers on the progress of the survey of Mont Blanc and on glacial erosion. M. Vallot contributes accounts of his scientific researches in the Mont Blanc tunnel, and his explorations of the moulins of the Mer de Glace. Half-tone illustrations and a map accompany the volume. "Geological and Petrographic Researches on the Mont Blanc Group" is the title of an elaborate paper by Louis Duparc and Ludovic Mrazec, forming the latest number of the *Mémoires* of the Society of Physics and Natural History of Geneva. It begins with a description of the topography of the mountain, and of the position which it occupies in the Alpine range. The eruptive and crystalline rocks are described in connection with theoretical views concerning metamorphic phenomena. The concluding portion treats of the geological history of Mont Blanc. The illustrations include views of the different peaks and glaciers, and a series of plates showing the minute structure of various rocks.

The proceedings of the International Congress of Diplomatic History held at The Hague last September have begun to be published (*Annales Internationales d'Histoire: Congrès de la Haye, No. 1*). The complete "actes" of the congress may be had for twenty francs of the Count de Tarade, 45 rue Cambon, Paris.

—Those who hesitated about becoming subscribers to the *Jesuit Relations* (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) from fear that a work of sixty or seventy volumes would be long in production, and might be retarded altogether, must feel encouraged and gratified at the rate of progress which has been made. During 1898, publication advanced at just double the speed which the prospectus promised; and the same alacrity is maintained this year. If the half-way point may be regarded as the Rubicon of such an enterprise, it has already been passed. Students of American history have every reason to be gratified with the editing, and purchasers can find no fault with the presswork or other mechanical features. 1900 should see the successful end of a noble undertaking. Vols. xxxvii. and xxxviii. contain the following documents: the last of the Relation for 1650-'51 (or more strictly, three papers supplementing the Relation proper); the Relation for 1651-'52; the Journal of the Jesuit Fathers for 1652 and 1653; and a general account of the mission, written in Italian by Bressani, who had served in Huronia for four years. This last was not printed by Cramoisy, but appeared at Macerata in 1653. It contains little which has not been brought out in the previous narratives, and we therefore restrict our brief comment to the fresh material. Lower Canada and the Abenaki region were the only parts of New France where the Jesuits succeeded in accomplishing anything between 1651-'53. Druliettes, after his fruitless negotiations in the English colonies which we have already noticed, returned to his post among the Abenakis and won their affection completely. How different was his treatment on the banks of the Kennebec from that which his brethren received in the valley of the Hudson,

and westward along the Great Lakes! Ragueneau thus describes in the Relation for 1651-'52 the Abenakis' disposition towards him: "They honored him at their feasts with the viands which they ordinarily give to their Captains. If he went on a journey with them, the best canoe was chosen, and he was given the most comfortable seat; and if he wished to ply the paddle, they snatched it out of his hands, saying that his occupation was to pray to God. 'Pray for us and we will paddle for thee,' they would say."

—Meanwhile the nations of the St. Lawrence basin proved equally amenable. In March, 1651, Jacques Buteux, accompanied by three Frenchmen and forty savages, set out on a mission to that most docile of all the tribes, the Attikamegues. His route lay through a region which is now well known to sportsmen and geologists, the Laurentides, or Laurentian hill country. Le Jeune had traversed some part of this remarkable district in the first days of the mission, but Buteux probably saw more of it than his predecessor did. The characteristic feature of the Laurentides is their endless succession of small rocky hills, between every two of which lies a lake or a bog. Buteux and his party, by walking steadily all day, could advance only six leagues, and the obstacles which they constantly met with aroused their admiration while causing them dismay. Ice falls, cataracts, swift streams, perpendicular cliffs, and lodged timber beset their path. The difficulties of the route may be estimated by the statement that for over forty people only two bushels of Indian corn meal, one of peas, and a small sack of sea biscuit were taken. "We had barely enough to ward off death, rather than to sustain life. For my part, I had enough of my few effects; the difficulties of the road, the fatigue, and the fast, which I did not wish to break in Passion time, did not allow me to load myself with food." Those who are familiar with the district in question will read this early account of its exploration with heightened interest, but in any case it is very graphic. Alas, during the next season the good father encountered the Iroquois, with the usual result. The *Journal des Jésuites* for 1652 contains a bald entry of the fact. "On the 10th day of May, Father Jacques Buteux, in company with a Frenchman named Fontarabie, and a Huron named Thomas Tsoungoutannen, was killed by a band of 14 Iroquois. The two Frenchmen remained dead on the spot; the Huron was led away captive. This took place on the Three Rivers, at the third portage." However, Buteux's life and martyrdom are fully described by Ragueneau at the beginning of the Relation for 1651-'52.

—Scholarly study of the every-day Latin of the ancient Romans, that dialect, as Quintilian has it, *quo cum amicis coniugibus liberis servis loquamur*—the dialect which merged gently and imperceptibly into the Romance languages—is only just beginning. Five years ago, Columbia University made her first contribution to it in Dr. Cooper's treatment of the *Sermo Plebeius*, and now she gives us another, by Dr. G. N. Olcott. In his doctor's dissertation, "Studies in the Word Formation of the Latin Inscriptions: Substantives and Adjectives: with special reference to the *Sermo Vulgaris*," he has collected in convenient lists those substantives and adjectives of terminations which are most prominent in the

Romance languages, proceeding on the assumption that such formations were prevalent also in the common Latin. This assumption is fully confirmed, for more than one-sixth of the words in his lists are quite unknown to literary Latin. We are glad to observe that Dr. Olcott uses the term *Sermo Vulgaris* in its proper sense, therein differing from most of his fellow-investigators. As Quintilian employs it (12, 10, 43), it is far from signifying mere slang, or low, indecent language, or that which is "vulgar" in the modern society sense of the word; it has a much wider meaning. Sometimes it may deserve the application of these adjectives, but in general it is not so much the language of low life and ignorance as it is the natural language: in fact, it is what we term colloquialism. Of course, it was tabooed by literary men in their books, and consequently the inscriptions are our best source of information on its nature and development. As Dr. Olcott says: "The writers of the inscriptions used the language of every-day life, not the 'book-Latin' which they had forgotten since their school-days, if, indeed, they had ever learned to use it in the schools." His dissertation, however, contains little in the way of general discussion of the subject; it is rather of the *pour servir* variety. It consists chiefly of thirty-four classified lists of substantives and adjectives, with references to the most trustworthy books in which the inscriptions furnishing them are treated. Many such collections of forms of other classes of words as well as studies of the syntax of the inscriptions must be made before some scholar of the future sits down to compile his epoch-making Grammar of Latin Inscriptions. That scholar, however late he may come, will have Dr. Olcott's dissertation in his revolving bookcase. For present needs, we may note that this young American's work is printed by the Sallustian Typography in Rome, and that it is to be had of Gustav Fock in Leipzig. Which of our universities will be first to establish a real University Press of its own, to print and publish the productions of its faculties and students?

—At length the long-standing promise of the Clarendon Press has been fulfilled, and a trustworthy English translation of Gesenius's Hebrew grammar has appeared (New York: Henry Frowde). It was made in the first instance from the twenty-fifth German edition (1889) by the Rev. G. W. Collins, and after his death revised from the twenty-sixth edition by A. E. Cowley. It has also enjoyed the advantage of revision in proof by Prof. Driver. The result is most satisfactory. It is the only complete and full Hebrew grammar in English. For accident it is absolutely the most exhaustive and trustworthy statement in the language, and its treatment of Hebrew syntax, if somewhat timid in parts, may be called fairly good. But in this last respect our want was not nearly so great. Curiously enough, while Hebrew grammars in German tend to remain incomplete, and their syntax volumes seldom appear, English grammarians are rather stronger in syntax than in anything else. We have long had Driver's exceedingly able if frightfully involved and tenebrous 'Tenses'; Müller-Robertson is a masterpiece of lucid skill and linguistic tact; Davidson's 'Syntax' is admirably simple, yet full of detail and first-hand observation; all this apart from the English translation of the monumental and epoch-making Ewald. Be-

side these books, the syntax in this grammar seems lacking in philological grasp and acuteness; much *bearbeiten* has pounded it into flabbiness. The student will often have cause to groan over its be-figured paragraphs and winding convolutions of division. Yet, with all this, it contains much that is excellent, and its copious references to different and differing authorities and statements of their conflicting views will be especially useful. The grammar, as a whole, may also be said to be fairly up to date. We have noticed but few mistakes or omissions. One, of some importance, is on p. 135, where we are told that *wāw* consecutive is found in Phœnician and Hebrew only. That is not so. Nöldeke some time ago ('Zur Grammatik des classischen Arabisch,' Vienna, 1896, p. 68) pointed out its occurrence in old Arabic. There are about 21 pages of tables and 40 of indices.

—In June, 1893, a year and a half before Dreyfus was arrested, a novel entitled 'Les Deux Frères,' by Louis Letang, appeared in the Paris *Petit Journal*, the plot of which may be concisely described as follows: A young officer, Capt. Philippe Dormelles, who holds a position of confidence in the War Department, is envied and hated by two colleagues, named Aurélien and Daniel, who conspire to effect his ruin by accusing him of selling to a foreign Power the secrets of the national defence. It is arranged that a compromising letter, imitating the handwriting of Dormelles and addressed to a foreign military attaché, shall fall into the hands of the head of the department, Lieut.-Col. Alleward. Dormelles is arrested and thrown into the Cherche-Midi prison, and at the same time Daniel causes an article to be inserted in a newspaper, *Le Vigilant*, charging him with high treason and seeking to excite public opinion against him. This article concludes with the statement that a search in Dormelles's apartment had led to the discovery of important documents referring to the fabrication of smokeless powder, and that Dormelles thereupon had confessed his guilt. He is then sentenced to the galleys, but his betrothed is convinced of his innocence and finally succeeds in detecting the forgeries. Thereupon Lieut.-Col. Alleward is arrested and commits suicide in prison, not with a razor like Henry, but with a revolver. One scene in the novel describes the appearance of a veiled lady on the very spot near the Champs-Élysées where the veiled lady is said to have appeared to Esterhazy three years later, and for much the same purpose. The French Minister of War, Mercier, was forced to proceed against Dreyfus by the *Libre Parole*, which published lies about his confession, as *Le Vigilant* did about the confession of Dormelles. Can it be that the method of conducting the conspiracy against Dreyfus was suggested by Letang's story?

MISSOURI COMPROMISE REPEAL.

The True History of the Missouri Compromise and its Repeal. By Mrs. Archibald Dixon. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. 8vo, pp. xii., 623.

Archibald Dixon was in 1854 Senator from Kentucky in the Thirty-third Congress, filling the unexpired term of Henry Clay. On the 16th of January, the bill to organize the Territory of Nebraska being under consideration, he introduced an amendment abrogating the prohibition of slavery by the Missouri Com-

promise Act of 1820. After a momentary dismay, Douglas, Chairman of the Committee on Territories, dallied with the temptation and soon yielded to it, embodying the amendment in substance in his bill, which, after a memorable contest, became a law.

This was immediately followed by the disruption of parties, and by the organization of the Republican party, which swept nearly all the Northern States at once, and, though it failed to carry the Presidential election of 1856, elected Abraham Lincoln in 1860. As everybody knows, secession and the civil war were the next immediate stages in the logic of cause and effect. The armed raid of Missourians into Kansas to organize the Territorial government there by a brief military campaign, with the incident of a pretended election in which leaves of a Cincinnati directory served as fictitious poll-lists, increased the excitement over the great wrong, but did not alter its character. It was so also with the sham of framing the Lecompton Constitution declaring Kansas a slave State in defiance of the will of an overwhelming majority of the citizens, and the reckless efforts of Buchanan's Administration to force it upon the people. These were only the resorts of desperation in carrying out the fatal policy of repealing the slavery prohibition in these Northern Territories. They were subsidiary acts in furtherance of the dominant purpose to make Kansas a slave State, cost what it might, and were the legitimate fruits of Douglas's bill, though he himself was forced by the public opinion of his own State of Illinois to repudiate the final steps in the outrage.

The responsibility for the first distinct insertion of the repeal of the Missouri Compromise into the Kansas-Nebraska bill was so awful, as tested by its results, that one would expect disclaimers instead of claims to it as an historical honor. We can understand how Douglas, had he survived, might have wished it to appear that he had only yielded to the demands of the South through Mr. Dixon as its mouthpiece; but we cannot understand how one to whom the Kentucky Senator was dear, can, at this day, offer the world an elaborate presentation of his authorship of the fateful measure, and of arguments to persuade us that it was right. Yet that is what is done in the work before us, even to a facsimile of the original paper in Mr. Dixon's handwriting, with the official endorsements of the Clerk of the Senate.

The author was the second wife of Mr. Dixon, married to him in October, 1853, and, as his health was not firm, she acted as his amanuensis and became intimately acquainted with his thoughts and beliefs. The book is proof of no ordinary mental power in its writer, and of no ordinary strength of will and of devotion to her task. She began the study of the subject in 1877, a year after her husband's death; her library and the partly completed manuscript were destroyed by fire in 1893. Daunted only for the moment, she soon began again the collection of material and the second writing of her work, and has lived to give us the result in the stout volume now published. She has adopted Mr. Dixon's point of view, and mastered with indisputable thoroughness his theory of the great subject and what logically flows from it. We cannot fail to assume that his positions are adequately and sympathetically stated. If she defends the system of slavery and its consequences in ways that would seem contrary to a woman's na-

tural bias toward freedom and the sacredness of the family, we are permitted to see in it the stress of her reverential devotion to one whose conclusions she must regard as authoritative for her.

Mr. Dixon was a Whig who professed devotion to Henry Clay, yet he was, in his person, a proof of the decay of the Whig party and its practical absorption into the mere pro-slavery party of the South. He was a lawyer by training, but had become a wealthy slave-owner, and saw the "institution" with quite other eyes than those of the great Whig leader. A convention to revise the Constitution of Kentucky met in 1849, and Clay had taken the occasion to urge the adoption in it of a system of gradual emancipation. He declared his belief that most people in every section of the country regretted the introduction of slavery, and lamented "that a single slave treads our soil." Mr. Dixon was elected a member of the convention, and signaled his radical difference from Mr. Clay by attacking the emancipation proposal. His widow tells us that he "opposed and denounced it with all the energy and vehemence of his nature." He introduced a resolution declaring that, as slaves are property, even the Constitution could not deprive the owner of them otherwise than any other property could be taken. He secured its incorporation into the Constitution in the declaration that "the right of property is before and higher than any constitutional sanction, and the right of the owner of a slave to such a slave and its increase is the same and as inviolable as the right of the owner of any property whatever." We are told that Mr. Dixon's speech in support of this section "was so earnest, its arguments so convincing, its eloquence so powerful, that it carried the convention by storm."

This enables us to understand what progress in revolution was marked by Mr. Dixon's election to serve out, in the national Senate, the remainder of the term when Clay was dead. It gives a certain appropriateness to his official demand that the principle of absolute chattelism of man should be held to abrogate every limit to the spread of slavery, and to send the Ordinance of 1787 as well as the restriction of 1820 to the limbo of exploded frauds upon the supra-constitutional right of property in slaves. It adds significance to his declaration in the course of the debate that, as a pro-slavery man, he knew no party when the interests of slavery were in question. To this complexion had Kentucky Whiggery come at last. Not only was Clay as dead as Cæsar, but it seemed as if he were as long dead.

Yet the abrogation of the Missouri Compromise was put forward as necessarily included in the principles of Clay's compromise measures of 1850; and it was now only 1854! The simple fact was, that the Missouri Compromise was assumed as the basis of Clay's "omnibus bill" of 1850; and, instead of being impliedly abrogated, the new measures had none of their alleged efficiency as a permanent quieting of controversy except as they implied that that compromise was and remained in full force. It was a palpable falsification of the facts of history to deny this. It was so plain that argument was embarrassed by the simplicity of the case, and Greeley rightly cried out that it was hard to say whether the new bill was more an insult or a fraud.

The inspiration of Clay's efforts in 1850

had been to make a "finality" of the anti-slavery agitation by removing all the practical causes of dispute. The only "principle" in it was to find some viable expedient in each subject of quarrel, which might give peace through a mutual yielding by the combatants. It was his reputation as the putative author of the Missouri Compromise, which for thirty years had been thought to be, in Buchanan's words, "hardly less sacred than the Constitution," that made it seem his prerogative to add to it a further compromise regarding regions which it did not cover, and which, by settling the new strifes, should give the promise of permanent peace. He notoriously sought to add to it, not to supersede it. The peace it was supposed to have given for a whole generation, was one of the strongest arguments that there might be a similar settlement of the questions which grew out of the acquisition of territory by the war with Mexico. Arrange these amicably, and sectional antagonisms would cease for lack of a real bone of contention.

Instead of having weight with Northern men, the argument would have ruined every chance of compromise if it had once been suggested that, under pretence of applying "squatter sovereignty" to Utah and New Mexico, the whole great valley of the Missouri and its tributaries be thrown open to slavery. On the other hand, the real argument was, Since you of the North are already secured in the almost boundless regions of the Northwest, to which we are willing now to add the admission of California as a free State with boundaries reaching from Oregon to Mexico, why cannot you give the South the feeble chance of natural competition in the settlement of Utah and New Mexico, where Webster and Douglas unite in declaring that a higher law, that of Nature herself, has decreed that slavery can never enter, because it can never be profitable there? Such reasoning carried the compromise of 1850. In 1854, the audacious claim of political might against right was that Utah and New Mexico had dragged as a tail the whole Northwest into the net of the slave power. Every intelligent man in the country knew that the assertion was false in fact, and it only kindled wrath in Northern men to hear it argued that it was the logical result of Clay's measures of 1850.

The truth, of course, is that compromises are, in form, the discarding of logic. There neither is, nor in the nature of things can be, any "principle" in them from which anything can be argued. They are bargains to settle difficulties by mutual concessions. They begin and end in the specific arrangement made in each case. The North claimed the admission of California with her free Constitution; the South refused it. The South claimed the right to carry slaves into the region taken from Mexico; the North asserted that it was free under Mexican laws and must stay so. Texas claimed New Mexico; it was objected that it never was part of Texas, and had never been occupied by Texans. The North claimed the closing of the slave-markets in Washington; the South demanded a more stringent fugitive-slave law. The compromise admitted California, gave Texas ten millions for a quit-claim to New Mexico, allowed slaveholders to settle Utah and New Mexico if they could do so in peaceful and fair competition with other immigrants, abolished the slave-trade in the District of Columbia, and passed the fugitive-slave law. To pretend that this con-

series of measures impliedly abrogated the Missouri compromise was regarded by Northern men as the mere impudence of arrogant power. The North might as well have claimed that it was an implied agreement that no new State should ever be admitted except with a free constitution like California. As if to repudiate explicitly the idea of any system of measures having a common principle and mutually dependent on each other, they had been defeated in the form of the "omnibus" which united them, and were passed by the Senate separately.

But Mr. Dixon, however willing to praise the Douglas bill and to applaud the specious argument of the Illinois Senator made for a Northern audience, planted himself and based his amendment upon the ultra-Calhoun doctrine that all restrictions of slavery were unconstitutional. He stood for the recognition of this, as he had succeeded in putting it into the Constitution of Kentucky—a law even "higher than any constitutional sanction." In his brief part in the debate he said, "I look upon the act of 1820 as a violation of the Constitution of the United States." The right to take and hold slaves everywhere was, of course, the logical conclusion from his proposition that slaves and their increase are as absolutely chattels as sheep and oxen.

Earnest anti-slavery men at the North always had a respect for Calhoun and his school, because of their willingness to stand by the logical results of slavery. With them the issue was intelligible, and the debate reached first principles of law and morals. The anti-slavery principle was that slavery was a creature of municipal law, and could exist only when it was established by positive law; that outside of such limits there were no presumptions in its favor, and it was condemned as contrary to the inalienable rights of man. In this contention the whole current of civilized law fully sustained them. Its logical results were also clear. The Federal Constitution did not establish slavery, it only tolerated it within the States which by their own laws established it. Outside those State limits the wrong system had no standing in law, and when easy-going comity of friendly States was repudiated by the South and constitutional rights asserted, the way was open to bring "righteousness to the line, and justice to the plummet."

We should belie our English blood if the majority of our people had not been willing to forego logic in favor of any tolerable arrangement of conflicting interests. As long as sufficient room was left for the westward migration of our teeming millions without immediate contact with the system which degraded free labor, the practical situation could be endured, and only a small minority cared to make a political issue upon it. Why could not the Calhoun doctrine be allowed to work, and the North and South take their chances of the natural migration to the Territories? Mrs. Dixon has answered this as clearly as one could desire, though on this point we may question whether she finds her inspiration in the Senator's writings. As to those "fertile fields," she says, the Northern people "were excluded by the existence of slave labor as effectually as though by act of Congress" (p. 2). Again, speaking of the region taken from Mexico, she says: "No one can blame the people of those Territories for objecting to having slaves brought into their country; and yet one cannot, either, blame the Southern people for desiring a

portion—at least of the land which they had so largely contributed to gain" (p. 228).

This essential incompatibility between slavery and free labor is stated by Mrs. Dixon in almost the identical terms which were used in 1820 by the New York leaders, Tallmadge and Taylor, and in 1854 by the Ohio Senators, Chase and Wade. Because it was truly stated by them all, Senator Dixon's amendment in 1854 reduced the struggle to simple and irreconcilable elements. A total surrender of all the Territories was demanded of the North, and we cannot dispute Mrs. Dixon when she says, "It was a question of land, for which the Anglo-Saxon race will always fight." Clay had seen it. He had warned the South that there could be no peaceable secession, and told them that if war should come he would be found on the side of the Union to which he owed his first allegiance. It marks the long gap between Clay and Dixon that the latter, from his home on the banks of the Ohio, did not see the portents of the storm he was raising, and seems to have thought he was doing no more than offer the decision of an academic question of constitutional law. As to Douglas, we know too well the effects of political ambition to wonder so much at his blindness.

The author's perception of the real character of the contest might well have modified her judgment of the public men and measures which she treats; but it has hardly done so. The Northern men who led the opposition to slavery extension are painted as unscrupulous demagogues, the Southern advocates of the great breach of faith as unsullied patriots. The materials used in the book are almost wholly drawn from the Congressional debates, and we find no evidence that even such general histories as Hildreth's, Von Holst's, or Rhodes's have been read or consulted. A number of collateral historical questions are mooted, and it might be interesting to criticise the treatment of some of them if there were space; but there is not. Near the close of the book is an intimation that Senator Dixon condemned the final effort of Buchanan and the party he represented to force upon the Kansas people the Lecompton Constitution, in the making of which the citizens of that Territory had no part, and which they repudiated with wrath. Authentic evidence of the manner in which such a man as Dixon viewed the events of the civil war as they passed, would have a most instructive historical value, could the work be brought down to emancipation in Kentucky.

The First Philosophers of Greece. By A. Fairbanks. Scribners. 1898.

The Ionian philosophers embody for us more than one aspect of the brilliant and restless life of Ionia in the seventh and sixth centuries B. C. Their philosophy sprang into being as the expression of that overflowing life and splendid spontaneity that had made the Ionians the creators of the Greek epic; and perhaps even more was it the outcome of the restless Asiatic curiosity that caused the greatest of them, like Herodotus, to become wanderers on the face of the earth. Before philosophy and poetry had quarrelled, the earliest of the Pre-Socratics expressed in majestic, rugged verse or in abrupt, vivid prose their burning interest in the unexplored universe. What is it all made of? What is its basis, its ἀρχή, its underlying

element? That was the inquiry they were eager upon: Human action and human society lay without the sphere of their research; hardly, before Socrates, did men change the form of their question, to ask, "What is it all made for?"

For the characteristic attitude of the Ionians was aloofness. They stood apart. Heraclitus of Ephesus, uttering on the mutability of things words "solemn, unadorned, unsweetened," as he himself said of the Sibyl, declined to instruct his fellow-men. "For what sense or understanding have they? The very best choose one thing before all others, immortal glory among mortals, while the masses eat their fill like cattle." The tears of this great first pessimist, this "weeping philosopher," are symbolic of his despair of mankind, as the laughter of Democritus the Atomist symbolized his doctrine of contempt. All things flow from us—nothing abides; that is the burden of the "harsh protesting cries" that have come down to us in the name of Heraclitus "the Obscure." He must have seemed to himself a sort of Cassandra as he stood preaching, in words that his fellow-citizens failed to understand, the unreality of all the visible tangible phenomena which they took so seriously for realities. Aristotle has told us, in the 'Metaphysics,' that the Platonic doctrine of Ideas arose from the universal definitions of Socrates—those definitions of courage and justice and friendship which he extorted or failed to extort from the amazing patience of the Athenian youth—and the Heraclitean doctrine of the flux of all things. In fact, one would not be far wrong in saying that the main preoccupation of Plato's teaching was to bring about a reaction against Heraclitean relativity and mutability. Plato stands between the living and the dead—opposing unchangeable types, as the only realities, to that flux which Heraclitus had taken for a law of all existence. This idea of the unchangeable he borrowed from Parmenides the Eleatic; though he was, perhaps, indebted to Democritus the Atomist for the term itself—*εἶδος*, or *ἰδέα*.

This, then, is the origin of the Platonic doctrine of the baseness of matter, which Huxley thought, at best, but a "splendid folly." In the 'Phædo' we read of Plato's disappointment in the case of another pre-Socratic, Anaxagoras, who had made so real an advance by introducing a guiding intelligence into the universe, and yet in the end had adduced only secondary and trivial causes for his explanation of its problems. It was from Anaxagoras's teachings that Pericles had acquired his subtlety of statesmanship, for Anaxagoras, at any rate, with some danger to himself, tried to influence human action through his pupil. It was Xenophanes, the founder of the Eleatic school, who inspired Plato with his hostility to anthropomorphic notions of the gods, and to him we may trace the avowed monotheism of the 'Republic.' Plato's method of dialectic was derived from the Eleatic Zeno. We have said so much to show that Plato's writings are a palimpsest, because Mr. Fairbanks in his Appendix hardly leaves the correct impression of Plato's use of the pre-Socratic doctrines. He says (p. 264): "Plato's writings betray no particular interest in any of the pre-Socratic thinkers except Parmenides and the Pythagorean school; nor do they convey any hint as to the value of the work of the other early thinkers."

Not explicitly, perhaps. But "they are everywhere in it, not as the stray carved corner of some older edifice, to be found here or there amid the new, but rather like minute relics of earlier organic life in the very stone he builds with." No one has so admirably stated Plato's debt to the pre-Socratics as Walter Pater, from whom these words are quoted.

Mr. Fairbanks's book is, in some respects, disappointing. He seems to have conceived the idea of furnishing students who have no knowledge of Latin and Greek with an English substitute for the first volume of Ritter and Preller's monumental 'Historia.' He has, therefore, arranged the fragments with a parallel English translation. The critical notes, however, appeal to another class of students, and might have been omitted; for we cannot suppose that any student who desires a thorough knowledge of the Ionian philosophers will neglect Ritter and Preller for Mr. Fairbanks. We are surprised to find that their invaluable work is not even mentioned, and that Mr. Fairbanks can say (Preface, p. 1) that "the student who desires to examine the evidence for himself still finds the material difficult of access." Diels has naturally been the editor's main source, and his debt is acknowledged. The volume may be recommended to all who read their Plato in Jowett and their Aristotle in Welldon or another.

The term "doxographer," which is throughout used for the familiar "doxographer," does not strike us as a happy innovation. On page 78, Lasus is called "son of Hermiones"; surely Hermione was his birth-place.

The Philippine Islands. By Ramon Reyes Lala. New York: Continental Publishing Co.

Still they greet us—books on the war and our new territory; the last but not the least appearing under the above well-worn title. All of them, with the exception of 'Yesterdays in the Philippines,' treat the subject in more or less the same way. They invariably begin with the discovery of the islands, their acquisition by Spain, and early history, and continue with observations on the character of the people, soil and climate, the resources, physical geography, and commercial importance. Mr. Lala's book, however, gives us observations made from the point of view of a native Filipino. From Manila, where he spent his early life, he went to Europe to be educated, returned later to the Philippines to study his own people, and has now come finally to America to write about them and their land. In his preface he says: "It has been my aim to give, rather than a long detailed account, a concise but true, comprehensive, and interesting history of the Philippine Islands; one, too, covering every phase of the subject, and giving also every important fact." This is a large task to perform in 342 pages, diminished by the space occupied by 133 illustrations.

Mr. Lala begins with the early history of the islands, from the occupation of Mindanao by Magellan, and comes down through the attacks on Manila by the Chinese and Dutch to the point where the English arrive to hold the Philippines for ransom, and finally to give them over to Spanish colonial rule. He then, without ceremony, jumps into the middle of things as they are at the present day, and tells of the evils of the tax system, the corruption of church and state, the

tardy justice administered by the courts, and the relations between the governing people and the governed. Then, warming up to his work, he discusses the various tribes in different parts of the archipelago, and tries to give due consideration to everything, from the height of the principal volcanoes to the length of village feasts.

In speaking of the religious orders, whom he believes to have been the cause of incalculable harm and injustice, Mr. Lala says that their future treatment is one of the hardest problems to solve. He considers that the most effective way of dealing with the friars is to expel the whole body from the islands, and says: "I do not believe that these good brethren will soon cease to foment insurrection against the hated Protestant conqueror. They have ever been breeders of mischief under the congenial rule of Catholic Spain; what won't they do under the régime of enlightened America, whose first thought is the liberty that means death to extortion and oppression—the cardinal principles of their order?" Mr. Lala here speaks as a Catholic as well as a Filipino, and his radical sentiments are probably shared by a large majority of the civilized natives in the archipelago.

In discussing native characteristics, the author credits the Filipinos with being so far fatalistic that they are resigned to the inevitable. "Incomprehensible inconsistencies," says he, "obtain in nearly every native." We learn they are not noted for foresight or energy—qualities which one would expect to find lacking in tropical races. They are calm, but not secretive; curious, but polite; passionate, and cruel to their foes. They are fond of family life and of children, are superstitious, have no sense of humor, are seldom witty, and are not easily moved to anger. Regarding the feeling which the native holds for the Chinese who have swarmed pretty well over the Philippine archipelago, Mr. Lala says: "Like all courageous people, he despises cowardice and pusillanimity. He has, therefore, but little regard for the meek and humble Chinaman, who will pocket an insult rather than avenge himself." But the Chinaman, though hated throughout the Philippines, is indispensable; and as the labor problem is to be one of the great questions in the future development of the islands, it is worth while to see what the author further says regarding the Celestials:

"The Chinese," he remarks, "have been a great boon to the colony—they have had a civilizing influence on the natives, and have taught them many important things! They have ever been the leaders in commerce and the chief middlemen of the colony; without them trade would almost be brought to a standstill. But by their superior shrewdness and cunning, they have excited the hatred of the natives, who despise them. Their expulsion would, however, be as unwise as it is impracticable, and the only remedy is in state control."

In treating of the various wild tribes of the interior, the author generalizes to such an extent that we do not feel as if he had had the personal contact with them which enabled Prof. Dean Worcester to make his accounts of aboriginal life so interesting in his "Philippine Islands and their People."

About the middle of the book Mr. Lala decides to describe Manila, its various suburbs, the customs of the people, and points of interest. He then takes up many of the chief commercial towns in various parts of the archipelago, giving a short description of each. In the latter pages he gives the

history of the commerce with the archipelago in detail, and this in turn is followed by a treatise on agriculture. The cultivation of rice, sugar-cane, hemp, tobacco, coffee, and cocoanut is considered in separate chapters. Following these come others in which are discussed the forests, animal life, and mineral resources. The author believes the archipelago to teem with vegetable and mineral life in inconceivable richness, and thinks that only good government and enterprise are necessary to turn these resources to account. And yet, in another chapter on climate, he hints that the hot weather soon causes the energy that one has in cooler climes to evaporate; and without energy, where is enterprise? The work ends with an account of the struggle of the Filipinos for liberty, the battle of Manila Bay, and the American occupation. Although the book is replete with information, facts are jumbled up in such an uncomfortable way that the reader finds himself frequently wishing for more sequence and less sudden transition from mountain to mole-hill or vice versa. On the whole, however, the volume is creditable to the author, whose father, by the way, keeps one of the best-patronized hotels in Manila to this day; and it is full of illustrations.

Spinifex and Sand: A Narrative of Five Years' Pioneering and Exploration in Western Australia. By the Hon. David W. Carnegie. M. F. Mansfield & Co. 1898. 8vo. Pp. xvi, 454; illustrations, maps.

The author of this book is an excellent representative of the class of men who have made the British empire. The younger son of a Scotch nobleman—Mr. Carnegie himself gives no hint of this—he went to Western Australia, when just of age, in 1892, to try his fortune in the newly discovered gold-fields of Coolgardie. Here he worked as a "surface hand" in a mine "at £3 10s. per week, with water at the rate of one gallon per day"—the water having to be brought from a well thirty-six miles distant—and as a prospector. In this latter employment he travelled extensively through the region searching for "color" or auriferous rock. This occupation was abandoned in turn for that of the genuine explorer, and, with four companions and nine camels, he was first to cross the great interior desert from south to north. Returning by a different route, he reached the southern settlements in July, 1897, after an absence of thirteen months. His aim was not simply to fill up the blank places on the map, but also to discover a practicable stock-route by which the cattle from the Kimberley pastures in the north could be driven to the gold-fields. In this he was unsuccessful, the wells and "soaks" being too few and uncertain to admit of the passage of any animals but camels, nor did he find any trace of gold.

The story of these varied experiences is told in vigorous English colored by the frequent and unstudied use of miners' slang. The first portion is a vivid picture of pioneer life, with descriptions of the different rude methods of getting gold, of the "rushes" to new fields, above all of the eager search and frantic strife for water. This is, in fact, the prevailing topic throughout the narrative, the great Australian desert containing possibly the largest waterless regions on the face of the globe. In his second crossing it he travelled "a distance of about

800 miles" without finding what was apparently "permanent" water. Often the means of discovering it was by capturing a native and compelling him, through thirst—he would not do it freely—to lead them to the tribe's water-hole. Mr. Carnegie acknowledges the cruelty of the practice, but says that without this forced aid of the natives we "should not only have lost our own lives, but possibly those of others who would have made search for us after." The desert, the northern half especially, is remarkable for its sand-ridges, running parallel to each other from east to west, with an average height of sixty feet and a quarter of a mile apart. One day's entry on the route-map is: "Crossed 88 sandhills in 8 hours' travelling." Seen from a height, it seemed "as if the whole country had been combed with a mammoth comb." The predominating vegetation is spinifex, a species of *Triodia* growing "in round isolated hummocks one to three feet high; these hummocks are a dense mass of needle-like prickles, and from them grow tall blades of very coarse grass to a height of sometimes six feet. . . . Most accursed vegetation to walk through, both for men and camels." Scattered through it are small tribes, or families rather, of natives who wander from well to well, living mainly on rats, reptiles, grubs, and seeds. Notwithstanding their wretched life, they are often well formed and of good size, while a certain degree of intelligence is shown by the fact that they are "governed in their social life by marriage laws and class systems of the most intricate kind." In an attempt to explain these laws Mr. Carnegie is obliged to use algebraic symbols.

A pleasant note in the narrative is the good feeling which existed between the author and his companions, in his various expeditions, and the evident sincerity with which he often acknowledges the value of their services. But, strong as was his attachment for them; it was, if possible, stronger for his camels; whom he calls, not without reason, "one of the noblest of creatures and most marvellous works of the Creator. Brave, dumb heroes, with what patience and undaunted courage do they struggle on with their heavy loads, carrying what no other animal could carry in country where no other could live, never complaining or giving in until they drop from sheer exhaustion!" He gives instances of their affection for him in return for treatment so kind and careful that not one perished from the terrible privations and horrors of the desert.

The illustrations are interesting, but the elaborate route-maps show remarkable powers of observation in so youthful a traveller.

Observations of a Ranchwoman in New Mexico. By Edith M. Nicholl. Macmillan Co.

Mrs. Nicholl is an Englishwoman who, after a residence of nearly twenty years in this country, fled for refuge from ill-health to New Mexico. Like all sensible invalids who do not seek a propitious climate till too late, she determined to give herself a more exhilarating occupation than brooding over her ailments, and therefore took a thirty-acre ranch in the Mesilla Valley, near the old Pueblo of Las Cruces. In her little book she gives some vivid descriptions of the arid landscape, the bare battlemented Organ Mountains, and (what constitutes the greatest

charm of the Southwest) its pellucid atmosphere and the infinite variety of tints it throws over the hills and plains at sundown, from gorgeous crimson through every shade of green to deepest blue. Glorious as is an Eastern sunset, it affords no conception of the radiance of light and color which at that hour bathes the horizon of this dreary land, still less of the awful splendor with which it clothes the heavy masses of threatening clouds, which in the rainy season so often hurl down destruction, rather than shower blessings, on the parched earth.

Mrs. Nicholl tells with sincere emotion, though with tiresome amplitude of detail, of all the troubles she had to put up with from the lazy and mendacious Mexican servants, and the still more vexatious disappointments she had to endure from imported American help. The book is written for her countrymen, and this may account for such wearisome prolixity, and for her loading her chapters with trivial comments on our common schools, on the deficiencies of our judiciary, on our political methods and consequent political corruption, on the silver question, and on every other phase of American life and manners, when any excuse offers. As an intelligent resident of long standing, her reflections on ourselves are just and appreciative, and those on the faults of her own countrymen and women candid and keen, but we could have wished that she had confined herself to her farming experiences, and given us the balance-sheet of her ranching operations, and more of the daily routine of her work, and her conclusions as to why one rancher makes so signal a success and another so deplorable a failure. She touches on these delicate points—but only touches. The main drawbacks to the prosperity of the Rio Grande valley, all will agree with her, are the Mexican population and the dearth of water—two radical, and yet she thinks remediable, defects. She contends that the second must be remedied before the first will disappear. If, by the storage of water, certainty of crops could be assured, white ranchers would be induced to enter and displace the indolent New Mexicans, who are the most worthless item of the Gadsden Purchase.

The sonorous title of the river which takes its rise in the mountains of Colorado, the Rio Bravo (Grande) del Norte, is, from the Eastern standard, a ridiculous misnomer. Except when the snows are melting at its source, its bed below Albuquerque is occupied almost wholly by moving sand instead of flowing water; and as more and more water is drawn from its upper reaches for irrigation, that long stretch of river below El Paso which marks the boundary between this country and Mexico, is at certain seasons practically dry. Thus lands on the Mexican side, once under cultivation, have relapsed into aridity, and, as a consequence, the adjustment of international water rights has become one of the diplomatic questions pending between ourselves and the Government of Gen. Diaz. Impounding the water during flood, as is being done in Egypt, or catching the rainfall in reservoirs, are the alternatives. Damming the impetuous Rio Grande is in itself a very different feat from damming the sluggish Nile. All the Western rivers, when in flood, carry down, besides vast stores of fertilizing mud in suspension, incredible quantities of sand, gravel, and boulders, which soon fill up any reservoir erected across the channel. Storage reser-

voirs to store water, and not stones must be filled by rainfall or by water tapped, through lateral canals, from the rivers during the short periods of flood. The average rainfall in New Mexico and Arizona is about ten inches, or far more than sufficient to irrigate all the arable land in these two vast but mountainous Territories, if it could be impounded and distributed over their marvelously fertile valleys, which compose but a small proportion of their total area. The climate of the Southwest is ravishingly beautiful and exhilarating simply because of the scanty rainfall. If to the attractions of such a climate could be added the exuberance of vegetation which springs up as if by magic under irrigation, our Western Territories would be in very truth the garden of the earth. The narrow stretches of garden orchard and alfalfa meadows which line the banks of the Rio Grande, the Gila, and the Salt River owe their vigorous life and prolific yield to the water these streams grudgingly and intermittently lend them. But the river valleys are insignificant in extent compared with some of the vast plains of South New Mexico and Arizona, which are composed of soil as rich as that of the river bottoms. Though they are to-day sandy wastes, they would reward with harvests, such as our Eastern farmer never dreams of, the skill of man distributing at regular intervals over their surface the rain which falls in sufficient volumes only during the rainy seasons. Difficult as the task may be, our engineers will accomplish it, and thus add to the Union, without bloodshed or injustice to any one, territory as prolific as Cuba or Porto Rico. To expansion by such means all parties will heartily agree.

Our author justifies the continued exclusion of the last two of our old Territories from the privileges of statehood, while peopled by so many of the original native population, and till the whites attain greater predominance numerically and settle down to more sedentary habits of life. Neither mining nor cattle-ranching is conducive to sobriety of thought and quietness of spirit; and these two employments absorb the energies of the bulk of the Americans of New Mexico and Arizona. Few are willing to endure the toils and reap the slow small gains of farming, and these few are in great measure Mormons.

The Cruise of the "Cachalot." By Frank T. Bullen, First Mate. D. Appleton & Co. 1899.

In these days a book that treats of the whale fishery offers a wide field for the imagination. There was a time, however, before the decline of that industry, when an author was forced to adhere to great accuracy of statement, as being under the scrutiny of a large audience learned in the technique of every phase of the subject. The least deviation from realistic precision, either in the navigating of ship or handling of boat, or in the thousand and one details of the business, or any unfamiliarity with its argot, excited the derision of an army of knowing and exultant critics. The author of *'The Cruise of the Cachalot'* is fortunate in that the composition of his book has been deferred to the last years of the present century.

Mr. Bullen does not dally in proclaiming that he is an Englishman. On the second page of his first chapter he falls into the

trap that writers of his nationality invariably set for themselves when they attempt to transcribe what they consider genuine Yankee dialect. Mr. Bullen's is that employed in London music halls to arouse British hilarity, but which is as far removed from the original as is cockney speech from that of the Southern negro. The hero of the story, an English youth, is at New Bedford, Mass., looking for a berth on a ship. He meets a seafaring man to whom he addresses an inquiry, and who in reply says, "Wall, I should surmise," etc. Nothing can convince an Englishman that this is not a common affirmative of the average American. No Yankee skipper that ever lived has used the word in the sense with which Mr. Bullen applies it. The impossible sort of lingo that he puts in the mouths of the American shipmates of his hero is irritating and fatiguing, and casts a cloud upon the verisimilitude of the narrative. So does the circumstance that, in the last pages of the book, when the ship is within a few hours of reaching New Bedford on the return from a two years' whaling voyage, the author speaks of sighting "*Cape Navesink* or *Qle. Never-sunk*," as if it were a landmark indicating proximity to the port of destination. He is probably alluding to the Highlands of Navesink, near the entrance of New York harbor, 150 miles more or less west of New Bedford. This disregard of geographical accuracy is unpardonable in a writer who claims to have attained to the grade of first mate in the (presumably) British merchant marine, which he could not have done without having passed a severe technical examination.

It is hardly fair to consider this book seriously. It is the story of an English youth, originally a London street Arab, who, with some previous nautical training, ships on board a New Bedford whaler for a long cruise after sperm whales. He encounters the usual stock adventures—brutal "Yankee" officers; the inevitable battle between a giant octopus and a sperm whale, this time by moonlight, *pour encourager les autres*; opportune gales and convenient lee shores, smashed boats, physical suffering, etc. All the old properties are brought out in succession. The hero, notwithstanding his origin, calling, and youth, possesses literary tastes. Among his other effects he has a copy of the Bible, Shakspeare, and two of Dickens's works. These prove a source of great intellectual solace not only to him, but also to the polyglot crew of the ship, composed of negroes, Portuguese, and the offscourings of a seaport town. Mr. Bullen has gifts of narration and description that would avail as much for adventures on land as for those which he has located upon the sea. The frontispiece to the book is a beautiful example of the best school of wood-engraving.

History of the People of the Netherlands: By Petrus Johannes Blok. Translated by Oscar A. Bierstadt and Ruth Putnam. Part I. From the Earliest Times to the Beginning of the Fifteenth Century. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

We have met with one or two ardent admirers of Motley who considered it an impertinence that any one should, after him, presume to write on the subject of Dutch history. We therefore lose no time in stating that Dr. Blok, though a professor in the University of Leyden, is free from the charge of poaching within the American his-

torian's enclosures. Beyond doubt the struggle against Spain is the *Glanzpunkt* of Dutch heroism, but for a long time before William the Silent the people of the Netherlands had interesting annals, nor did the race exhaust itself by a single, if glorious, effort. Dr. Blok in this work does not select any one incident, movement, or period for minute examination, but writes comprehensively of the Dutch and Flemish folk in their social as well as their political progress. In the first volume, which is the only one at present translated, he begins with the earliest inhabitants—to wit, cave-dwellers—and reaches the death of Count William VI. in 1417. But as the primitive and Roman periods are rapidly dismissed, this instalment might almost be termed a separate treatise on the mediæval history of the Netherlands.

For purposes of convenience, the translators have added to the first volume six chapters which, following Dr. Blok's own division, belong to the second part. Thus rearranged, the pages before us admit of ready analysis, because a logical break occurs almost exactly midway in the book. Although the Dutch Republic was declared free from allegiance to the Empire only at the Peace of Westphalia, the Netherlands virtually cut adrift from Germany during the great interregnum. Certainly by 1300 "the German kingship had become but a name in the Netherlands, respect for which was ever growing less. The counts and dukes were in fact kings in their lands; they had acquired almost all the royal rights as they were more and more impelled to undertake the King's obligation to maintain peace." After glancing at Roman occupation, Dr. Blok describes the condition of the Low Countries during the Inroads, its status under Merovingians and Carolingians, and its emergence from the profound territorial changes of the ninth century. After this, four chapters on the rise of small fiefs, early feudal society, the Netherlands in the Crusades and domestic broils, bring us to the dividing line already mentioned. The second portion of the volume is more distinctly occupied with Flemish and Dutch affairs, inasmuch as, with isolation from Germany, *Netherlandish history assumes its special and local aspect*. In the first half, Dr. Blok must perforce traverse territory which has been pretty thoroughly surveyed by the numerous writers on mediæval imperialism. After 1300 he enters his own province.

By way of adding a single word to this analysis of contents, we may state that the chapters which have interested us most are the ones standing at the head of the second part. In a little less than a hundred pages Dr. Blok presents an admirable picture of *Netherlandish society at the beginning of the fourteenth century*. After considering the position of the territorial lord, he passes on to the three estates, regarding clergy and nobles separately, and dividing the commons into country people and citizens. Such a sketch puts one in a position to understand perfectly the struggle of the Flemish communes in the days of James and Philip van Artevelde, and is an equally serviceable introduction to the relations of Holland and Zealand during the Hook and Cod quarrels.

The translation of this first volume has been made mainly, but not entirely, by Mr. Oscar Bierstadt of the Astor Library. In most respects the English is unexception-

able, but at times we have noticed a certain haziness in the use of personal pronouns. It should also be indicated that the English text does not altogether represent the Dutch original. Some abridgments of the political narrative were deemed advisable by the author, and have been made, "while the account of the development of social, industrial, and intellectual conditions is given in full." We must express regret at the almost total lack of footnotes, an omission which now and then is rather glaring. Thus, in writing a chapter on mediæval nobility, Dr. Blok gives the passage from John of Beka wherein William of Holland's knighting at Köln, October 3, 1647, is picturesquely described, but one of its most distinctive features is left in a mutilated state through the absence of a brief explanatory note. In Dr. Blok's version we are told that the "Lord Cardinal [acting for Pope Innocent IV.], in full dress, spoke to the squire, starting out from the signification of the word knight: 'Every one who wishes to be called a knight must be constant, noble, generous, spotless, and strong.'" Now the adjectives which Capuzius actually used were *magnanimus, ingenuus, largifluus, egregius, and strenuus*, constituting, as will be seen, an acrostic upon the word *miles*. Dr. Blok gives no hint of this, and so the point is completely lost. It would also be interesting to know what authority there is for the extraordinary statement that, in a tournament at Neuss, one hundred knights were suffocated by the dust.

The volume is, however, an admirable study, not merely in *Netherlandish history*, but in the life of mediæval Europe. We must state in conclusion that one very useful feature is the appendix, which contains a detailed account of the authorities for early Dutch and Flemish history.

Rights and Duties of American Citizenship.

By W. W. Willoughby, Ph.D., Associate in Political Science at the Johns Hopkins University. American Book Company. 1898.

This work is hardly elementary enough, either in substance or in statement, for a wide use in the public schools, nor does it go far enough beyond their requirements to satisfy the needs of college classes. The reader will at once detect in the author a combination of the political scientist and the political reformer. On controverted points he sometimes declares himself and sometimes not. He does not hesitate to oppose suffrage for women and the "Initiative and Referendum," for instance, but gives a summary of arguments on the silver question without any statement as to his own views, and fights shy of the problem of the liquor traffic. We note a number of statements so inexact as to be misleading to the uninformed reader. The time of election for Representatives is not absolutely uniform, as one would infer from the statement on page 162. In case of a vacancy in the House, the Governor *shall*, not *may*, order a new election. In case of a vacancy in the Senate, the appointee of the Governor holds his place "until the next meeting of the Legislature," not until a successor is chosen, as Mr. Willoughby says. All appropriation bills are not given to the committee on appropriations, as is implied on page 176. The statement that "the United States has never found it either necessary or expedient to

levy export duties" is superfluous, in view of the fact that they are forbidden by the Constitution. The prohibition of import duties by the States is put into the text without the qualifying exception that such duties may be laid, under the supervision of Congress, to the extent necessary to secure funds for executing inspection laws. The statement that the inhabitants of the District of Columbia have no right of suffrage at local or national elections should have been accompanied by mention that a considerable proportion of them retain a voting residence elsewhere. The course of action laid down for the introduction of a new State into the Union is not legally obligatory, as the uninformed reader would surely infer. The Constitution puts no limit on the method to be employed by Congress in this matter, and it is important that this should be known at a time when there is so much feeling in favor of putting at the disposal of Congress a large amount of possible material for new States. The pledging of Presidential electors does not result in election by the people "as much as if the people voted directly," since a large majority in any State has no effect outside the State where it is cast. Being a teacher and not a capitalist, the author is excusable for falling into the error that gold certificates are all of the denomination of \$20. Mr. Willoughby's definition of independence in politics, as implied on the closing page of his book, is too nearly that of the enemy. As a reformer, he ought to be satisfied with no use of the term which would bring it into play only when one or both the great parties go wrong.

If a second edition of the book is called for, these infelicities can easily be removed in revision, and a form given to it which will adapt it better to general use in the public schools.

The Referendum in Switzerland. By Simon Deploige. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898.

Not the least meritorious part of this work is the introduction, by the translator, Miss Lillian Tomlin of Girton College. In fact, except to the student of politics, this introduction is the only readable portion of the book. M. Deploige's study is extremely thorough. He goes back to the origins of Swiss institutions, and traces the growth of the referendum in every canton. The material that he has collected is of great value, and his work will be peculiarly appreciated in this country, where the referendum is much talked of, but little understood. But these details are quite too minute to be comprehensible to the ordinary citizen, who must in such matters content himself with the testimony of experts as to general results. Such testimony is very well summarized by Miss Tomlin; and there is also a letter from Prof. Van den Heuvel of the University of Louvain, in which strong reasons are given for holding the referendum inapplicable in Belgium.

One of the most conclusive arguments against the introduction of the referendum in this country is the fact, on which emphasis is laid by all competent observers, that the institution belongs to democracies of small size. As Mr. Lawrence Lowell, whose opinion is accepted as conclusive by Miss Tomlin, has pointed out, the larger the population the harder is the problem of free government. The population of Switzerland is only three millions; its government is efficient and economical, free from corruption and from the

vacillations of our party system. When these conditions are changed, the methods of government which have been successful may cease to be so. Moreover, the evidence here collected is overwhelming to the effect that the referendum in Switzerland has been of very doubtful advantage. Its opponents are as numerous and as determined as its advocates, and the political consequences of these attempts at popular legislation are very generally deplored. It has encouraged the growth of professional politicians, and the mass of the people are altogether incapable of judging of the legislative measures submitted to them.

But we cannot enter into this broad question, and will content ourselves with advising those who wish to understand it to apply themselves to the study of this instructive treatise.

Political Crime. By Louis Proal. With an Introduction by Prof. Franklin H. Giddings. [The Criminology Series, edited by W. Douglas Morrison. IV.] D. Appleton & Co. 1898.

This is a translation of a work called 'La Criminalité politique,' by M. Louis Proal, a judge of the Court of Appeals at Aix, and a writer on the theory of crime and punishment. The term "political crime" with us generally means one committed against some organized government; e. g., treason, murder, pillage, and destruction of property in aid of insurrection, and outrages having some political aim. The *criminalité politique* of M. Proal, however, means something very much more comprehensive than this, for it includes crimes committed by governments, or by persons engaged in the work of government, for political advantage or reasons of state. The book consists of a vast array of facts drawn from the history of Europe (America is barely mentioned), showing that in politics the maxim that the end justifies the means has been commonly taken as a legitimate guide by men who in private affairs would have been extremely reluctant even to avow any such principle. We have consequently on one side the whole system of statecraft which Machiavelli expounded in one century, which Napoleon attempted to revive in another, and which even to-day finds many defenders in practice if not in theory; on the other, the extraordinary phenomena of criminal Anarchism, in which crimes are committed the political object of which, beyond the fact that they involve the murder of persons connected with the Government (or in some cases merely persons in the well-to-do class), the perpetrators themselves are unable to explain.

With the facts of Anarchism, however, the world is pretty familiar, and M. Proal does not add much to our knowledge of the subject, though his manner of treating it throws new light upon it. His main point is that the Anarchists are egged on by all those modern teachers who deny spiritual beliefs, raise the negation of morality to the dignity of a system, extol egotism and the struggle for existence, and proclaim the right of every one's enjoying everything that he sees in any one else's possession. One teacher proclaims "free love"; another, the right to have food; a third, the right to "material satisfaction"; a fourth, the right to be supplied with work at a price which suits him. What wonder if the doctrine "To every one according to his needs" crazes weak and half-educated men and turns them into wild

beasts? There is a direct connection, too, according to the author, between Anarchism and the sentimental speculative philosophy which preceded and helped to cause the French Revolution: "Man is born good," says Rousseau, "and society depraves him." So Ravachol, when the judge says to him, "You commit murder to satisfy your passions; what can society expect of a man who manifests such sentiments?" replies: "It is I who have something to expect of society. It is its duty to support me. . . . All that has happened, I tell you, is the fault of society."

The more important part of the book is that which deals with crimes committed by Governments, or persons in authority. These are not the acts of madmen or criminals, but of respectable and enlightened men, who deliberately lie, steal, murder, and, in fact, commit on occasion any wrong that seems necessary, for "reasons of state." There is a striking chapter on "The Corruption of Law and Justice by Politics." As the author says, judicial crimes are the worst of all, because wrong done by means of judges, through false accusations, not only results in murder or spoliation, but in establishing against the victim the truth of a false charge. The list of the victims comprises some of the most distinguished names in history, Phocion, Socrates, Aristides, Miltiades, Themistocles, Sidney, Russell, the Duc d'Enghien, the Girondins. All ages and every country contribute to it. Instead of saying "O, Liberty," it might have been said, "O, Justice, how many crimes are committed in thy name!"

The strength of M. Proal's book lies in the presentation of the case; its weakness, in the fact that he does not seem to be aware that, to prevent what he calls "political crime," other remedies than moral exhortation and reproof and criticism are within our reach. He seems to think that the only cure for the tendency to abuse power in the way he describes, is a general regeneration of the community, and he enforces the lessons, first, that the use of evil means by Government debauches (through the force of example) every one under it; second, that a good state cannot exist unless it is composed of good citizens. Fortunately, it is not necessary to wait till we are all good before we can have good government. The commission of crimes by those engaged in the work of government can be repressed, and has already in most modern countries been very much repressed, by making those who commit them responsible to the ordinary tribunals. Of course, this cannot be done entirely—occasions will arise in which power will still be abused; but most of the political criminality of the past has come from want of legal responsibility. The principle that officers of the Government are responsible to the ordinary law courts, universal throughout the Anglo-Saxon world, makes such proceedings as disgraced France during the Revolution impossible with us. It prevents the erection of special tribunals to accomplish particular ends, precludes wholesale proscriptions by popular bodies, and, provided the courts themselves are left independent, secures justice even in cases where the rights of the citizen conflict with those of the men who govern him. Another safeguard against political crime is publicity, and the effect of this, even against great odds, can be seen in such proceedings as the Dreyfus case, in which,

but for the press, the forms of justice would have been used by those in authority for the foulest ends—and with complete success.

Edward Thring, Master of Uppingham School: Life, Diary, and Letters. By George R. Parkin, C.M.G., LL.D., Principal of Upper Canada College. 2 vols. Macmillan Co. 1898.

"Edward Thring was unquestionably the most original and striking figure in the schoolmaster world of his time in England." This first sentence from Dr. Parkin's preface will, it is to be feared, seem exaggerated to many readers of the *Nation* who are still stumbling under the Arnold myth which ascribes to St. Thomas of Rugby healings more marvellous than any told of St. Thomas of Canterbury. Edward Thring's life extended from 1821 to 1877. He was the son of a very positive and somewhat stern country clergyman, and a mother from whom he got all the tenderness his life ever knew, and who outlived her gifted son. He was educated at Eton and Cambridge, and went into the Church. In early manhood he applied for and obtained the Mastership of the grammar school at Uppingham, in the heart of the hunting district, a foundation of Queen Elizabeth's day, which, under the listless management of a board of local trustees, educated about twenty-five boys. Thring determined to make a true public school of it. He recognized that the English public-school system, "that which thinks school a better place for boys than home," was firmly fixed in the minds of that class which is determined to give their boys all the education they will take. He saw that the great schools, Winchester, Harrow, Rugby, his own Eton, were filled to bursting, and that there was a grand opening for the fine old foundations over the country, if they would only stretch out their arms and welcome pupils. He conceived, also, first of English schoolmasters, the idea, not of subjecting all boys to unvarying and inflexible tradition, but of doing the best possible thing for each boy by himself.

How he accomplished this work; how he risked his fortune, his very life, living for years under a load of debt; how he fought the narrowness, the indifference, the jealousy of his trustees; how he provided the school with all suitable appliances for study, comfort, and relaxation, without abating a jot of the ancient discipline; how, when he had rescued his boys from the drowsiness of old tradition, he had to fight a Government board, eager to remodel every school almost out of existence; how, when the school had grown more than fifteen-fold in his hands, and was talked of everywhere as a model, he steadily refused to let it increase beyond just limits; how when, by the utter supineness and worse of the town authorities at Uppingham, fever was so raging in the place that the school had to be closed, he moved the whole establishment bodily to the Welsh coast, and conducted it with entire success for a year in the buildings and grounds of a seaside hotel till all danger of infection was removed; how he came to be the father of an annual gathering of the headmasters of all public schools, even the greatest; how he was through it all the devoted minister of the Church of England, never yielding a jot of his ancient beliefs, and all but dying in the Communion service—is the story told in these volumes by one who was drawn

across the ocean to sit at his feet as his model and guide in teaching.

Dr. Parkin's book is largely made up of letters and diary; and, as is apt to be the case in such compilations, many things are spoken of by allusion which are perfectly clear to the writer, but for us need interpretation. This the editor might often have given us without in any degree infringing on his rule of reticence where plainness would give pain. It is to be wished he had added a species of chronology of Thring's successive improvements; and he might have let us know more of his immediate household—at least the names of his children, and when they were born to him. There are many loose threads of this kind that should have been gathered up. But, on the whole, it is a good book about a very good man, and merits a longer notice than is at our present command.

Ichthyologia Ohioensis. By C. S. Rafinesque.

A verbatim reprint. By Richard Ellsworth Call. Cleveland: The Burrows Bros. Co. 1899. 8vo, 175 pp. Portrait and cuts.

The torment caused to the systematic naturalist by the ill-digested, and latterly more or less irrational work of Rafinesque, has often been enlarged upon. A stumbling-block it has been and will remain, and nothing seems practicable but to make the best of it. His account of the fishes of the Ohio, in spite of certain mythical species included through the practical jokes of Audubon, is one of the less obnoxious of his papers. It was first published in the *Western Review and Miscellaneous Magazine* issued, 1819-'21, in Lexington, Kentucky, by William Gibbs Hunt. The type was afterwards rearranged in octavo forms, and the work reprinted with some slight revision and a short supplement and index. Of this publication only eight copies are now known to be in existence.

The present reissue, comprising 250 numbered copies, will be of use to students of American vertebrates, few of whom can have the opportunity of consulting the original. It is preceded by a preface, a reprint of the portrait and biographic sketch from the 'Life and Writings of Rafinesque' published by the Filson Club in 1895, and a discussion of Rafinesque's ichthyological work. To this is added a literal reprint of the 'Ichthyologia,' with the original magazine pagination, as well as its own, indicated in brackets; a bibliography of Rafinesque's papers on fishes extracted from the 'Life and Writings' above mentioned; and a reproduction of an autograph letter from Rafinesque to Dr. Daniel Drake of Cincinnati, written July 8, 1820, and containing a sketch of one of the fishes, described in the 'Ichthyologia,' not hitherto printed.

Dr. Call has not concealed the faults and errors of his author in his discussion of Rafinesque's work on American fishes, yet it cannot be denied that the papers published from 1817 to 1821 lie at the foundation of the investigation of our fresh-water species. Only one paper, that of Lesueur on the fishes of the lakes of Upper Canada, antedates them, and, with all their errors and fictions, they cannot be ignored. The editor and publishers are therefore entitled to our gratitude for the reissue of this necessary document, to which they have given an appropriate and tasteful dress. Many years ago the late G. W. Tryon performed a similar service for the conchological writings of Rafinesque, but we have not yet heard that any meteorologist has reproduced the tract in which this half-crazy systematist described a large number of genera and species of thunder and lightning.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Austen, Jane. Catherine Morland. Traduit de l'Anglais par Félix Fénelon. Paris: La Revue Blanche.

Baedeker's United States. Second, revised edition. Leipzig: Karl Baedeker; New York: Scribners.
Barber, E. A. Anglo-American Pottery. Indianapolis: The Clay-Worker.
Barrett, Wilson, and Hichens, Robert. The Daughters of Babylon. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.50.
Beardsley, Aubrey. A Second Book of Fifty Drawings. John Lane. \$3.50.
Belle, Hilaire. Danton. A Study. Scribners. \$2.50.
Belside, Iris. The Mirror Lake, or, The Enchanted Water Lilies. London: T. F. Unwin.
Bemis, Prof. E. W. Municipal Monopolies. T. Y. Crowell & Co. \$2.
Berle, Rev. A. A. Modern Interpretations of the Gospel Life. Boston: Pilgrim Press. \$2.
Bloomingdale, Charles, Jr. Mr. Miss, and Mrs. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.25.
Boothby, Guy. Pharos, the Egyptian. Appletons. \$1.
Boyer, Prof. C. C. Principles and Methods of Teaching. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.50.
Brisson, Adolphe. Portraits Intimes. 4ième série. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Buckbank, W. E. Poems and Songs. London: T. F. Unwin.
Brown, P. H. History of Scotland. Vol. I. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. \$1.75.
Brown, W. H. On the South African Frontier. Scribners. \$3.
Brownlee, Prof. J. H. War-Time Echoes. Akron, Ohio: Werner Co. \$1.
Burch, A. de. Elizabeth, Empress of Austria. A Memoir. London: Hutchinson & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$2.50.
Burr, J. G. Pointed Paragraphs for Thoughtful People. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Campbell-Copeland, T. American Colonial Handbook. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 50c.
Chesnut, C. W. The Conjure Woman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25.
Coleman, Oliver. Successful Houses. H. S. Stone & Co.
Colenbrander, H. T. Dagb-Register Gehonden int Casteel Batavia. The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff.
Cook, Rev. E. W. The Origin of Sin. Funk & Wagnalls Co. \$1.50.
Davies, Rev. Edwin. Gems from the Fathers. London: Bagster; New York: James Pott & Co. \$1.75.
Douglass, Lily. The Mormon Prophet. Appletons.
Dumic, René. Contemporary French Novelists. T. Y. Crowell & Co. \$2.
Dow, A. W. Composition. Part I. Boston: J. M. Bowles.
Foulke, W. D. Life of Oliver P. Morton. Including his Important Speeches. 2 vols. Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.
Gilbert, Prof. G. H. The Student's Life of Paul. Macmillan. \$1.25.
Hamm, Margherita A. Porto Rico and the West Indies. F. T. Neely.
McLennan, W., and McIlwraith, J. N. The Span of Life. Harpers. \$1.75.
Palmer, Frederick. In the Klondyke. Scribners. \$1.50.
Richter, Victor von. Organic Chemistry. Vol. I. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co. \$5.
Stevens, H. D. A Boy's Life. Boston: J. H. West & Co. 50c.
Van Dusen, Washington. Songs of Life and Love. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Whishaw, Fred. At the Court of Catherine the Great. F. A. Stokes Co. \$1.75.

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